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NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W.

Washington, D.C.

The Youth Services of the New Deal and Future Action

John W. Herring

CCC is gone. NYA has been narrowed to certain specialized tasks. WPA is a shadow. There may be a considerable disposition to say, "That's that; the need is passed. Let's drop the argument about these agencies and forget them."

But there are plenty of good reasons for not forgetting them. We may quite possibly have an army of 8,000,000 unemployed youth after the war. We will in any event find ourselves subject to extraordinary stresses that affect youth far more sharply than they affect the rest of us. Youth under the strains to come might seek fascist escapes as the result of frustration. Army training is a problematical factor. Or youth may rise to the challenge of new world-building. Certainly the burden of building the post-war world will fall most heavily on young shoulders and young minds possessing an elasticity that has gone from many of us older ones. Thus the spotlight will inevitably be placed on youth in the peace as it is now placed on youth in the armed services. We shall find need to recreate our youth services on a huge scale. We shall then have great need to profit by lessons learned from these vanishing programs. Actually these lessons have not been clearly or popularly discussed, discounting the superheated Congressional debates and hometown arguments.

What have we learned from our experience with the NYA, the CCC, and the WPA? We need an answer, for the post-war period is certain to bring renewed strains on youth unless we plan with care to prevent frustrations that can be dangerous. *It is urgent that planning be done now.* The author of this evaluation was closely in touch with all three youth programs. He is now Director of the Section for Citizen Unity in the New York State War Council at Albany.

The chief lesson, I think, that CCC, NYA, and WPA taught us was that youth service agencies must be built around a more dynamic social or "citizenship" purpose than was apparently possible in "relief" or semi-relief programs. Citizenship training in its broadest and richest sense marks the spot of our worst failure.

It was an inspired idea to convert our economic adversity into an occasion for great social educational measures. The greatest of these measures of course would have been to train the shock troops of the new democracy, the democracy that must go forward in the midst of a world turned backward. The NYA, the CCC, and the WPA educational projects were dedicated to citizenship, and to other things—relief, jobs, conservation. The "other things" won. They won every time—in the words we put into Congressional acts, in the people we picked to run these programs, in the way the infinite detail of the job was handled. And they won hands down. Citizenship education, instead of rating first, came through a bad last.

THE NATIONAL YOUTH ADMINISTRATION

THE NYA was born of a deep devotion by national leaders to the well-being of millions of youth, out of school, jobless, dispirited. It has carried great appeal to our people.

Seen at middle range, the NYA sounded its pipes and gathered up as discouraged an army of nondescript youth as one could believe existed, even in the depression. Seen at close range, the NYA is another story. These youth have been alive, responding—somehow a surprising discovery to one whose first impression was of rows of impassive and unresponding faces. For even under indifferent leadership they have come to life. Their ignorance frequently has been appalling, and their opinion of their previous, and

limited, schooling would curl the educator's hair. Yet against this backdrop one has found an amazing responsiveness to a sympathetic approach. These youth have been avid for self-government, or for a share in planning their programs—and remarkably capable at it. Those who have learned to touch the right button have found astonishing aliveness of curiosity about international affairs, labor problems, propaganda, unemployment, personal and family matters. In short they contain the rich ore of citizenship, these youth who without our care have been headed for social waste.

In its general program, NYA has done a job in which enthusiasm, originality, and the human touch have, to a surprising extent, offset the weaknesses of a service so hastily thrown together and manned by so oddly assorted a crew. Oddly assorted it has been, assembled from the four winds and asked to solve, frequently without experience or training in this particular task, one of the most difficult problems of human adjustment in our whole land.

NYA's mistakes have been grievous, but it has been alive, it has been valiant, it has pointed the way to important future services to youth. The sharper the pity then that NYA's work for the training of youth and citizenship has been so unimpressive. NYA has met youth at the zero hour of entering voting citizenship and has fallen tragically short of its extraordinary opportunity.

Consider the setup: NYA has been by definition (actual definition by Congress and by deeds, not speeches) a method of putting unemployed youth to work, part time, and of providing a limited stipend, frequently as an extra slice for families on relief. There has been some job guidance and a fairly impressive record of job placement, and there has been "related training"—related, that is, to the job. This training has been partly farmed out to schools and other agencies. Oftentimes the job has been set up by NYA in a work center and the youth receive some instruction on the job by NYA "foremen."

This, except for NYA financial subsidies to high school and college students, is the master blueprint. Jobs, job guidance, related training, job placement. NYA has burst at times beyond this program but this is the official picture.

This is an important program—but—a youth is more than a job hunter. He is about to vote, about to pick a mate, about to play a part in the adult community. To him, most of the meaning of the job is tangled in with these other dreams and problems. A truncated program means trun-

cated youth—for youth is not made in sealed emotion-proof chambers. There isn't one chamber in youth that wants a job, another that wants to build a life. It's a case of the whole youth wanting the whole of life.

The NYA "center" is a "natural." It furnishes a golden chance to help the young citizen find himself, through self-government, through reading and discussion, through work, through democratic living, through sharing in community tasks. The gates are open to stimulation, to information, to ideas. It's the kind of spot where youth can hammer out a philosophy, pour the solid foundations for a lifelong democratic faith, and win his way to a working knowledge of the real stuff of our country's political, social, and economic problem. Some of this has happened. Mostly it has not.

The President's vision of the NYA, frequently stated, is the vision of enabling "the youth of America to have something to say about what is being done for them." In part, NYA has followed that vision. A fifth of the centers have been self-governing. About 50 per cent more have had some self-governing features. Relationships between youth and the administrators have usually been kindly. NYA has lived up to the democratic ideal of neighborly relations between youth of various colors, kinds, and sexes better than the CCC.

IN contrast with CCC, many NYA centers have been coeducational and have also admitted all races on democratic terms. Further, in the centers of colored youth, colored supervisors have occupied nearly all the posts, as indeed they have occupied some posts where their work has been with white youth. NYA has done well in many cases in developing a "home" feeling among its groups, a feeling noticeably lacking in CCC.

But here's the rub. The essential spirit has been good but the performance has been generally mediocre. Measured by the yardstick of citizenship training, we are astonished to find that virtually no personnel has been commissioned to handle this job. My own observation showed only two or three supervisors, out of some three hundred in one section, who were assigned to citizenship training. Even these few had mixed and uncertain assignments. Competent national studies show clearly that neither the "foremen" assigned to work projects nor the job-guidance people have been able to do a job in citizenship training. Mostly they have not known how, and in any case they have been busy at other things.

It's a job that takes an almighty lot of knowing how and a measure of time and devotion that is full and running over. NYA hasn't had these things and there have been few visible signs that it tried to get them.

The most discouraging fact in the picture is that NYA does not seem to have recognized the real thing when it has met it. A superb beginning was made in one city in launching a score of groups on constructive social projects, concerned with radio, a study of propaganda, making charts telling the story of democracy, a study of local housing, labor, and other problems. One supervisor was assigned to the job of tending and watering these projects. But within a month this supervisor was swamped by new orders to superintend seventy-five part-time NYA job assignments. The projects languished.

In another community an NYA group became interested in housing and actually penetrated to the inner sanctums of the City Fathers, won their affection and cordial interest, and managed to procure city action to remedy some of the worst slum conditions. The worker mainly responsible for the unobtrusive, sensitive skill and guidance that lay behind this extraordinary project was given no leeway to develop further this rich vein of the olden ore of youth civic interest.

I spoke of these "group activities" to a national executive of NYA and asked "How important a rating do these things get in your national scheme?" The executive looked blank and replied "Group activities? What do you mean?"

A Nazi leader in the same situation would envelop youth with propaganda. Our democracy is tragically hesitant about feeding youth the strong meat of democracy.

THE CIVILIAN CONSERVATION CORPS

THE CCC—the layman's picture is of fine upstanding youth with straight, brown, muscular backs, swinging the mattox and building roads and dams in the great educative out-of-doors. This layman goes back to his camping days, or, more accurately, to his dreams about the out-of-doors for his appraisal of life in this young man's army of conquest of waste land, insect, and forest. Happily he is partly right. Unhappily he is mostly wrong, for straight backs and nature's ozone are only a fragment of the story. The true score must be reckoned from many counts and the total adds up to far less than the sedentary citizen's romantic and faintly envious appraisal.

The CCC touched much the same group as the

NYA—a bit less privileged perhaps. It had the same chance to use the neglected years to make vibrant citizens. It succeeded, as I see it, less well.

The root of its failures was lack of democracy. True enough, on the job side it was more efficient than NYA. Its failure was on the human side. Against the NYA record of some degree of self-government in the majority of its centers, few if any CCC camps were democratically organized. Moreover most of the regular army and reserve-officer personnel had little sympathy with self-government. The CCC accent was on routine, the job, and camp discipline. Its scheme contained more penalties than rewards. Significantly, CCC life also produced more misdemeanors, as I have observed it and as national studies have shown.

CCC was operated by the army and by prominent labor-union leaders, a sterling group of men but not equipped by training to do an imaginative educational job, or one that calls for special talent in democratic dealing.

Democratic education is in one way the most individualistic thing in creation. It's a matter of tracking down the hankerings and aptitudes of the youth and making the most of them. The army is accustomed to uniformity and obedience—all bunks must be made alike, all boots aligned in a row, and the group must respond as one man. One can sympathize in full with army necessities and still realize that there are places where the army method doesn't work.

In one camp, the commanding officer was a lovable fellow and very much of a human being. But he ran into a human situation he wasn't trained to handle. A fine mulatto boy had somehow gained entrance to his camp. The boys were so won by his modesty and athletic prowess that they made him leader of a protest movement against what they called "rubber eggs" (cooked at four and chewed at seven). The camp "sergeant" walked in on a rather noisy conference of the enrollees and attempted to haul the colored boy by force to the captain.

"Take your hand off my arm," said the boy, "and I'll go to the Cap'n." (The rules about force were clear.)

The "sergeant" gave another yank and the colored boy threw him through the screen door of the barracks. A hearing was held in which every scrap of testimony completely supported the colored boy's position.

"I wasn't doing nothin' wrong," he said, "And there ain't no man alive can grab onto me."

The Captain gave him a dishonorable dis-

charge for insubordination, a black mark on his record, in a case where he should clearly have reprimanded the "sergeant," a pronounced bully type. The colored boy stepped up to face the captain with a plea that will remain vivid with all who heard it.

"Cap'n, I only asks for my rights. You can't send me home with a record. You wouldn't do this to your own boy."

"The hearing is dismissed," said the captain.

The entire camp went on strike. Finally the boys were persuaded to go back to work except for one stout protestor. He was discharged.

The boys' protest on food, incidentally, was just and an improvement was made. But the captain missed a golden opportunity for friendly conference with the boys—a conference which could have been built into a standing camp council. He sacrificed two of the best young Americans in the camp—and he sank in the regard of two hundred boys.

SECURING educational facilities has been a tussle. An outgrown storehouse in one camp was turned over in early CCC days to education. For months, no detail could be wangled from the office to clear it. No regular detail was then assigned to keep it in order. Presently, an order of tile arrived and was stored in this building for weeks. Educational facilities rated below space that could have been found in the regular warehouse, or say, the officers' ping-pong room.

Said a CCC regional educator in the Middle West in comment on a mild proposal for citizenship education; "Don't get me in dutch with my general. He's been a lamb lately. Believe me it's been a long road getting him to see education." Fancy a setup where education has to slip in the back door and purr behind a score of official backs for years before the lion turns lamb. With my fellow Americans I am tremendously for our army. But I think CCC was not its realm. Vice versa, I would deem it a grave error to turn national defense over to the educators to run as an experiment in self-government.

THE disturbing thing in CCC was the spirit, or lack of it. One boy put it well, if a shade extremely: "You get a strong back and a weak head." I asked one candid officer: "What per cent of your boys are bored after a month or two in camp?" "About 60 per cent," he said, after a pause.

That's it, of course. CCC was not fundamentally a vital experience. The shoulders tended to

slouch. Perhaps they ought not to. Six-thirty lineup for roll call, mess, a fine busy day of healthy labor on the project, mess at five-thirty, detail duty, and an evening free for horse shoes, ping pong, and education.

But the barracks were uniform; so were clothes and the movies. There was no privacy. There were too few girls, and usually the wrong ones. Neighboring towns offered at best a nervous welcome. Education took place by a red-hot potbellied stove which put the bulk of the boys to sleep unless the subject called for vigorous argument or the use of the hands—or unless the spirit was stronger than the flesh. Human relations between officer and enrollee were not warm. The camp wasn't a home. It wasn't a unit of democratic life.

If CCC had believed in education as it believed in the work project and in camp "details" it would have staggered the work so that the boys had time for education when they were free and fresh.

Vocational training in CCC improved, but CCC remained basically unchanged. Yearly it had to its credit more lands transformed, more swamps drained, more parks built. But it did not transform people. CCC's basic shortcoming was human and philosophical. It suffered from the myopia that has ailed NYA, but in worse form. It did not see the whole youth. It did not anticipate the character of youth's coming job in a hard-pressed democracy. It did not perceive its priceless opportunity for the making of the fine, responsible, sensitive, intelligent, and social human being we call a democrat. It dealt with jobs, with relief, with discipline, with strong bodies. It did not deal with the citizen and the man.

LACK of democracy in the CCC showed up in race relations. As noted above, colored boys were segregated in separate camps. No such line is drawn in the NYA. The old transient camps were more liberal. Camp Eleanor Roosevelt, near Bear Mountain, carried on an exceptionally fine demonstration of democracy in interracial relations for young women. Race segregation in CCC presents a strange picture, particularly in the North. White boys who had learned to take their Negro schoolmates as a matter of course found the Federal Government drawing the race line.

Said a CCC counsellor who had learned his CCC social usage well: "Colored boys prefer separate camps." Most of them did, perhaps, for reasons not too hard to guess. But my counsellor

friend felt he had made a point. And in a way, he had. One camp for colored boys had white officers and a colored counsellor. The counsellor was asked to eat with the boys so he "could understand them better."

On top of its other difficulties CCC was not liberal—again in contrast with NYA. This nipped any effort at real citizenship in the bud, for democratic citizenship is incurably liberal. At one time an order was issued to "teach civics," which meant, typically enough, such measures as reading the Constitution. Again several distinguished educators of solid reputation were asked to prepare illustrated pamphlets on "Men and Machines" and the like. "Men and Machines" did not get to the boys. It did not survive the official gauntlet.

BOTH the CCC and NYA methods would need pretty complete remodeling for possible future use. As I see it, the most needed change is to democratize these programs from top to bottom. It would seem self-evident that young men's and women's camps and centers in America should be largely self-governing. The camp or center should be a full-fledged demonstration of democratic life. Youth of Italian, Polish, native-white, and Negro stocks should learn the lesson of "Americans All"—learn it unforgettably through common sharing of duties and privileges, through free exchange of ideas, and through the contagious example of fine democratic leaders. Sadly enough it is usually the adult and not the youth that has put the brakes on democratic expression. I have known few instances where youth itself has thrown up the barricades.

The second needed change is in the personnel that directs and supervises. Naturally many bad choices will be made in a program employing thousands. The difficulty lies in the general policy. Neither the army nor the social-work expert was made for this job. Probably no one professional group fits the prescription. Some such plan as the following offers more promise: Shape up a personnel committee containing skilled persons from the national staffs of youth-service agencies and from the ablest members of the agricultural-extension agencies; add a couple of practical progressive educators who have conducted significant experiments in "group work," import an astute and high-minded politician who learned the human angle with his ABC's, and then throw in David Coyle and an able news commentator for good measure. Generally it would be well to skip

the Ph.D.'s, the disciplinarians, the educational rarefiers, and the philanthropists.

Third, the blue print of organization and purposes seems to me badly out of focus. It's easy to see why the purposes were set in the order they were: (1) the job, (2) the mess hall, (3) health and sanitation, (4) vocational education, (5) recreation, and (6) citizenship. Superficially this layout sounds "practical." It's easy to sell to the public and the legislator. But it does not fit democracy's needs of youth, or youth's needs in a democracy. We aren't starving. Food isn't first in our needs except when we have none. Even then it ceases to be first after a full meal. The job isn't either first or second in itself. It's the way we get the basic human things we want. Youth's continuing, biting, intricate need is to find himself in our democracy—as a citizen, as a head of a home, as a human being. A new combined CCC and NYA will need a great core object, the making of men and citizens. The directors should be filled with that object. The job, the camp or center organization should be aimed at that object. Everything, the methods of self-government, the use of work, the educational activities, the physical layout should be planned and measured according to that purpose.

This means practical things. We can't afford to have directors who see only jobs, or discipline, or hunger, or flat feet, or home relief. They'll switch the order and put first things last. Again, if the job doesn't fit the particular needs of the youth, change the job, shorten it, stagger it, substitute another job, do anything. It's the youth that counts.

Fourth, the new program must recognize that citizenship training in this tough epoch is more than a general atmospheric sort of thing. Asking God to bless America isn't enough. The citizen is up against practical special questions. His country asks him: What kind of war taxes will you back? What anti-inflation measures? What kind of post-war world are you plugging for? What emergency powers will you give your government?, etc., etc. Can we let him to pick his answers intelligently simply by improving his health, teaching him to shine his shoes before applying for a job, and training him to work hard and well on the job when he gets it?

THE WORK PROJECTS ADMINISTRATION

THE WPA also has been an important part of this picture. We found in a study of two eastern cities that the WPA educational programs dealt largely with young people. The median

age of students was 22. The WPA now comes to an end, but this is another obvious case where our hindsight should dictate our foresight of the needs which will inevitably follow the war. WPA was an act of faith, backed by cool billions, that the unemployed could render important services in art, education, and building. This faith, despite all difficulties, was richly vindicated. WPA also taught us our sharpest lesson, namely: You can not deeply rehabilitate a man if you mark his forehead with the scarlet letter of relief. Strange is the picture. These men and women who today are inducted to defense industry as to a knightly service, were made to blush as, yesterday, they took on the roles of artist or teacher. Yet in a long-range view, this nation's need of education and of art is deeper than our need of planes and cannon.

WPA has been a tremendous humanitarian measure, an immensely significant undertaking. But it has been weakened at the core by its apologetic philosophy. Able men went into WPA education with high hopes. They became disappointed and got out. For WPA, educationally, has not really meant business. It has been a stop-gap affair. It has doused enthusiasm as if it were an incendiary bomb. Employees were told to be grateful, not ambitious.

IS A youth program any longer necessary? With both industry and the army calling for men and more men, youth's unemployment problem may be largely solved. Then why the NYA, or any kind of program to serve youth? A large section of the public may join those Congressmen who would wipe the entire program off the public slate. To do so, I am convinced, would be to stage a moral retreat of the most tragic order, a retreat lacking any warrant or justification whatsoever in the facts of the American scene.

These facts as I see them are: First, jobs. Along with the rapid increase in the number of job opportunities has come a staggering demand for additional training of young men and women. The problem of creating jobs for youth has been replaced by the problem of creating skills in youth. This is by common consent. There is unhappily no common consent to the deeper proposition that democracy dare not content itself with creating skills alone, forgetting the range and the wholeness of youth's needs—and forgetting the intensity of our nation's need for whole youth. In the vast training program on which we are embarked there is, if anything, a greater rather than a less need for a full and rounded

youth-service program.

Second, despite wartime preoccupations, we can not possibly afford to throw overboard the whole process of experimentation and exploration of the problem of older youth. It is a waxing, not a waning, problem. In the matter of unemployment alone, the future will undoubtedly present bigger problems than the past. About four million youth were unemployed before the war. Six to eight million may be jobless after the war. The early twenties saw America's largest crop of babies. The forties will see our largest crop of young people and these young people will seek jobs not only in the face of a problem extraordinary of peacetime adjustment, but also in competition with many millions of returning soldiers whose claims will come first.

We have made a start on meeting the youth problem, only a start. We can not afford to sacrifice the toe hold we have gained.

Third, the number one job of our youth programs is not to put youth on a payroll or train master mechanics but to make master citizens. And there has never been an instant in our national life when this job has been so sheerly necessary as now.

THE NEW YORK STATE PROGRAM

IN New York State a serious effort is being made through the State Education Department to develop an older-youth service built on the principle of nurturing the whole man and the whole citizen. The program consists of activities planned and carried out by community councils of youth between 18 and 25. The job of the older adviser is to serve as an all-round, helpful, loyal, and stimulating friend. The community councils already organized by youth in Schenectady, Solvay, Syracuse, Utica, and a half dozen other communities are just about the most reassuring bits of human action in the Empire State today. It takes a certain amount of genius to give youth the necessary "push off," but it is a genius that is not uncommon. The trick is to recognize it when you see it. You can't capture this brand of ability with any standard net.

Viewing the New York State program in contrast to the NYA and CCC, one suspects that it contains the keys to the answer. Note the differences: It opens the door to all youth of all kinds, sexes, and colors. It invites youth to play the leading part in planning and doing. It uses the normal, natural community setting in large part. It suggests to youth that they serve the community rather than be served, and youth

likes it. Above all it treats youth as adult citizens—it welcomes new partners in democratic life and government, it gives youth dignity, status.

In a nutshell, youth has emerged from an abnormal period of depression to an abnormal period of war. What life plans they managed to put together in spite of yesterday's hurdles are being disrupted by today's war. And a tremendously difficult tomorrow is coming up. Youth may, and I think will, win through to great things, but they need help, friends. And the help and friendship must be built into a plan that reaches them all.

SHOULD the Federal Government do the job? The school man says "No. It's our job." One gathers that a major storm is brewing. The word of the school man apparently lacks magic in the lobbies and the Federal Government has been and appears still to be disinclined to yield to the public-school viewpoint. NYA and CCC were set over the hill from the schoolhouse.

Should these great services for youth be virtually divorced from the public schools? No one is more aware of the subtle and serious things that ail the public schools than is the truly progressive educator. But the schools are here and they are our schools. Can we not hammer out a cooperative program and policy by which we, the public, may employ both Federal and local forces to do the job that needs to be done? We need to couple our war effort with a program of democratic offense. And the place to start is youth. As Harold Laski puts it, "There could be no greater idea behind the strategy of democracy . . . than . . . to enlarge and deepen the boundaries of democracy. . . ." This, says Laski, is the way "to undermine the legend of the dictators."

Our long-run hope of peace hinges on the victory of ideas. We have tasted the bitter dregs of military victory for twenty years in a retching world. The democracies lost the peace because they were short on brains and soul. They failed to take the lead in building a national life and a world life that made sense, a life that was liveable for all mankind. The only force under God's heaven that can win the new peace is the educated mind and heart. Education is said to be slow. Slow it may be, but its speed is lightning compared with a society that seeks true progress through that mass mental abdication called dictatorship.

Education under the terrific heat of 1943 may not be slow. But to be swift it must deal with

reality. It must move into the thick of things. It must be unafraid. And it must pick the main chance—the chance called "youth." We of the middle and older years will not tip the scales for many more Novembers. Youth, the first voter—two and a half millions of them each year, young men and women under twenty-five and other youth pressing on their heels—are this country's main chance.

By the generosity of an abundant land we older Americans have been able to afford our failures. Not so our youth. For a new world is coming up behind the thunder and the flame, a world in which the free must also be the wise if freedom is to be. They must be more than we: keener in social skills, more capable of shaping our people's destiny by conscience and by brain.

SUMMARY

THE sum of past experience with NYA, CCC and WPA would seem to warrant these general conclusions:

1. The interests and skills of both the educator and the layman should be represented on a *government joint youth commission* in Washington charged with the administration of a rounded national youth program.
2. Similar commissions should be formed on both the State and local levels, providing greater *authentic participation* by both the schools and lay community groups in planning and executing the youth program.
3. The program should be implemented with specialized personnel assigned (a) to encourage youth participation in community affairs, i.e. citizenship education, (b) provide work experience, (c) to provide job training and job placement.
4. The relief principle should be completely eliminated. All youth should be included.
5. Youth Councils should be formed on both the state and local level to serve in a *bona fide team-work relationship* with the adult commissions. Youth's share in planning and in self-government should be accented throughout the program.
6. The basic description of the program should be *service by youth*, not *youth service*. Paternalism injures youth. The challenge to responsible service unlocks extraordinary energies.
7. It is all-important that we *start now* on a new youth program designed to help youth play its greatest role in the war effort and to prepare for the days to come.

History in the College During the Present War

Robert E. Riegel

WAR should offer a great opportunity to the teacher of history who is willing to accept the call. The crisis of war produces a keener awareness of influences that are remote geographically and chronologically. The papers are full of such far places as the Solomons, the Aleutians, Tokyo, Tripoli, and Stalingrad. Moreover, the importance of the historical past becomes apparent to even the most dim witted as world alignments, based on historical factors, dominate the daily news.

For Americans, an understanding of the American way of life assumes more vital significance to the citizen when he is called upon to preserve it by sacrificing his luxuries, some of his comforts, and at times even life itself. No longer can he be content to identify Americanism with automobiles, telephones, and bathtubs. He becomes conscious of richer values—of ideals and ways of action that are rooted in the past and which are distinctive to the culture of the United States. The teacher of history is glad and proud of the opportunity to describe this rich heritage.

And yet the history teacher must pause thoughtfully before the responsibilities that accompany his opportunities. As long as college history seemed to most people merely a mildly informative intellectual occupation for undergraduates headed for business and the professions, its content and method of presentation were no one's business but the instructor's. Who cared what was said about Magna Charta, the Constitution, or the First World War? For the

student born after 1920 they were all equally dead and gone, while the only outsider to have a positive reaction was an occasional parent or alumnus obsessed by some particular hobby.

Today, conditions have changed. More of our fellow citizens recognize the vital importance of history, and hence have an increased interest in what we teach and how we teach it. In consequence we must evaluate our work not only in terms of introspective personal satisfaction, but also in relation to the war effort and as a contribution toward the evolution of a better world after the war.

Teachers of history recognize their responsibilities, but still welcome their opportunities. We are living testimonials to our deep and abiding faith in the vital importance of history. We have dedicated our lives to the proposition that a knowledge of our historic past is a vital necessity for an understanding and intelligent treatment of the problems of today and of tomorrow.

Assuming our common belief in the value of history, let us consider the special problems of teaching history in the college during the war. The following discussion revolves around four general propositions, all of which seem to me to be true, and which certainly are worth consideration by the college teacher of history.

1. THE NEED FOR NATIONAL HISTORY

FIRST and foremost, let us give our preference to the history of our own nation. No student should be permitted to leave college without at least a moderate understanding of the history of the United States. All too frequently have we assumed that our entering students are amply informed about American history. Unfortunately that assumption is by no means always justified. An impressive proportion will fail not only in such erudite mysteries as whether Polk came before or after Buchanan, but will fail to know whether Clay or Bryan was ever President or whether the Louisiana Purchase included Ohio. Confronted with such small details as the rise of compulsory education or the coming of

Does war necessitate a new organization of history, new emphases, new interpretations, new purposes? The answers to these questions apply to high school as well as college courses.

This paper was prepared for a session of the American Historical Association's annual meeting scheduled to be held at Columbus, but cancelled at the request of the Office of Defense Transportation. The author is professor of history in Dartmouth College.

universal manhood suffrage they will throw up their hands in ignorance.

The extent to which American history courses should be required in college is open to dispute. For well-prepared students, a further repetition of the traditional survey may not only be a waste of time but may actually antagonize. Possibly such students should be barred from this particular method of obtaining easy credits. Certainly any compulsion should be used as sparingly as possible, or else the traditional survey course should be changed sufficiently to challenge the interest of the student having a reasonable understanding of the history of his own country, and but minor differences as to the facts that are important. Our nation originated as a European colony, but the time has long passed when we are justified in continuing to maintain that colonial status in the teaching of history. All too long have we developed our history offerings around the center of European history, giving that history the significant numbering of 1 and making it the one required course. Let us now give proper recognition to our common nationality and stress to the student the overwhelming importance of understanding his own nation.

Stressing American history should of course not mean the elimination of other fields of interest. A balanced historical diet is an intellectual necessity. The exclusive consumption of a single food is not healthy even though that food be prime roast beef or vitamin capsules. Many of us would feel that real historical education starts only when the student goes outside American history. Certainly everyone recognizes the importance not only of Europe, but also of Asia, the Americas and other parts of the world. And yet we have been extremely reluctant to develop courses which concerned regions outside of the United States and western Europe. Part of our reluctance has been based on the lack of student interest; the offering of a course which no one elects is a heart-rending experience. Under present circumstances a broadening of our offerings is a distinct possibility.

2. WORLD BACKGROUNDS AND RELATIONSHIPS

AMERICAN history should be treated in such a fashion that full recognition is accorded to our contacts with the rest of the world—and not only other nations' impact upon us, but also our influence upon them. All too frequently we have given the impression that everything from the steam engine to the abolition of slavery, political democracy, and economic depressions are

indigenous to America. From time to time we have of course stated the opposite, but our modest disclaimers have seldom been backed by sufficient action to carry conviction.

Stress on American history must not be permitted to pour gasoline on the fires of the narrow nationalism which have been ravaging the world in the immediate past. American history must be something more than tales of Betsy Ross and of Washington and the cherry tree. It must even be more than an account of God's special favors to his chosen nation. If we use the narrowly dogmatic and intensely partisan approach to history that has been so common in the past, where is the hope of future mutual understanding and world peace?

The idea of broadening the base of American history is even now obtaining recognition in cheering fashion. Several colleges have recently installed courses based on this concept. Much more important, however, the same trend is clearly visible in recent historical writing and in the contents of long-established history courses. The introduction of a new course may provide a desirable stimulus to undergraduate imagination and interest, but is not essential for the development of new trends and values.

3. POPULARIZATION AND ITS LIMITATIONS

WE SHOULD strive to popularize our courses and our speaking and writing. History is not only important but is also intensely exciting, and we should convey this feeling to our students. What advantage is there in persuading, forcing, or tricking a student into taking a history course with which he is then thoroughly bored, and through which he plods sorrowfully, with his eye on the day when he can sell his text and cast his notes into the wastebasket? Unless we arouse and hold his interest, only a small fraction of our job has been done.

Historians are extremely competent workmen. We have stressed diligence and accuracy until these qualities are integral parts of our characters—which is certainly desirable. We can be trusted not to run wild and toss the facts on the scrap heap to produce a tear or a laugh. But we are prone to consider detailed factual accuracy as the ultimate goal of the historian, even to the exclusion of that larger accuracy which makes the past a living element of the present. Dead men must live again. We must direct more of our efforts toward the colorful, the vivid, and the effective in our presentations.

Popularization should not be confined to the

classroom, for most of us do other speaking and much writing. To an unfortunate extent we write only for our colleagues. While no one would deny the value of the erudite article or book, crammed with carefully checked facts and buttressed by an intimidating battery of footnotes and a breath-taking bibliography, such writing is not enough. The result is that the bulk of historical information—or misinformation—is purveyed by the journalists, the novelists, and the dramatists, whose primary test for a fact is its literary effectiveness or its salability, and by the businessmen and politicians, who strive to support preconceived points of view. Great temerity would be required to castigate or even to disparage such popularizations, but is it not time that the people with the best knowledge and background provide at least a good fraction of the historical information which influences the American mind?

One type of popularization in which we historians indulge with increasing frequency and which seems to me not entirely admirable, is the devoting of greater and greater space to recent events. True enough that the complex civilization of today needs more extensive treatment than the relatively more simple life of a century or more ago, and particularly in the United States, where the 4,000,000 inhabitants of 1790 hardly merit as extensive discussion as the present 133,000,000. And yet the added emphasis sometimes approaches the ridiculous, until the teacher is giving essentially a course in current events—grasping the morning newspaper eagerly before he can venture into class. The day seems coming when a course in European history from the fall of Rome will have its semester division at 1870, while presumably the break in American history will come at the arrival of the New Deal. We must remember that our main job is not to interpret current events but to provide background, proper perspective, and reasonable proportions. Present events are unquestionably important, but let us use good judgment in the emphasis that we give them. The dome should not be permitted to eclipse the main bulk of the building.

4. INTERPRETATION AND INDOCTRINATION

LET US continue in the future as in the past to tell the truth as we understand it. Today the word "indoctrination" has achieved wide currency. If by indoctrination we mean the inculcation of an unreasoning and blind conviction that the United States has always and inevitably taken the right course of action and that it is com-

posed exclusively of heroes engaged in a wholehearted search for the common good, then it is bad. If it means an inculcation of American ideas by the study of the combination of selfishness and unselfishness, self-seeking and idealism, humor, sacrifice, pathos and tears that have gone into their making, it is fine and admirable.

Many of us have reacted strongly and with hostility against such words as indoctrination and propaganda. Such hostility is not necessary. Words are not evil in themselves, and these particular words are given bad meanings only by usage. One may feel proud—and not insulted—for being labeled a propagandist of the American way of life, who devotes his life to indoctrinating students with American ideals. In other words let us propagandize the truth.

Colleges have long stood squarely in support of the free search for truth. The results have been good. College teachers have attained prestige and reputation not only because of ability and knowledge but because they have been credited with devotion to an honest search for truth. Let us not at this time try to produce a crop of dwarf Goebbels. Our nation is based on a faith in democracy, and democracy is only conceivable if the people of the nation, given the facts, can make wise decisions. College students are citizens of at least average ability and with better than average education. They may not be old enough to vote, but they are old enough to be asked to die for the common good. Telling them demonstrable untruths or even half truths, no matter how laudable the purpose, will in the long run rebound in distrust and suspicion unless we are willing to accept the dictatorship idea of closing all but a few selected channels of information. If college students are not competent to hear the truth about the United States, both good and bad, and still of their own volition love and be willing to suffer for the country of their birth, then democracy is hopeless.

In a larger sense, the hopes and aspirations of democracy rest upon the free dissemination of facts and ideas. Democracy should never be considered as only a particular mechanism of government; rather is it an eternally continuing experiment, in which adjustments and improvements are the very breath of life. Its vital bases are universal education, freedom of information, and the secret ballot. With these basic essentials—and not without them—are we all convinced that democracy will continue to work in the future even better than it has in the past.

AN emphasis on truth telling raises the old and thorny problem of the nature of truth. Factual accuracy is certainly involved, and yet factual accuracy is less important than proper proportions and emphasis of treatment. For example, did we historians at one time mislead our students by over-emphasizing political, diplomatic, and military history? And did we then swing too far in the other direction? Such questions are hard to answer with finality, and quite possibly the answers are not important. Historians are both intelligent and honest—their considered opinions as to proper proportions will be generally satisfactory even though there is no absolute unanimity. Nothing could be more deadly than complete uniformity, for such uniformity would of necessity imply the imposition of force from the outside, and would sound the death knell of the history teacher as a professionally competent student whose judgment is of value.

One special point merits specific mention. Particularly during the 1920's, and especially in the United States, there existed a highly vocal attitude of flip cynicism—a trend toward seeking out all the defects of our civilization, even if many stones had to be overturned to discover a few unpleasant specimens of animal life. Robber barons, absentee landlords, labor exploiters, and dollar diplomats jostled each other on the pages of the then "new" history, accompanied by disillusioned and cynical comments on the selfishness and heartlessness of mankind. Such exposés have their place, but we have passed the time

when anyone believes that American history should be a wax-works chamber of horrors. We now realize that for every Gould there was a Hill, for every Tweed a Johnson, for every Platt an Altgeld. Moreover, the irregular life and excesses of a Jim Fisk were more than balanced by thousands of American citizens who lived moral and orderly lives, working hard, treating their fellow men with justice and charity, and worshipping God in the way of their fathers. Certainly the intricate matrix of life produces both saints and sinners; probably more important, saint and sinner are frequently combined within the skin of one man. A proper perspective should recognize this complexity but, much more vital, should stress the general and significant trends in the development of social institutions, minimizing the temporary and exceptional.

Let us then keep our eyes fixed firmly on the main trends of history. Our great job is to tell the truth as we see it—to give a vivid and accurate account of how the present world has emerged from the past. In relation to the present war, our work should be of immense significance in developing an understanding of the war and hence in bringing it to a successful conclusion. Even more important we should be laying a basis for a better and happier world in the future. Let us follow the recent advice of President Roosevelt when he said: "in your schools only the living truth will be taught." Or, in the even more historic words of the Bible: "And ye shall know the truth, and the truth shall make you free."

In the higher ranges of public education, issues of current society must come into instruction unless it is to be sterile and false to life. Here under the direction of trained and competent teachers pupils may be taught to look all around modern problems, to examine the points of view from which discussion proceeds, to acquire exact knowledge, to learn the assumptions on which decisions depend, and to develop that even temper so necessary to the preservation of democratic institutions (Educational Policies Commission, *Unique Function of Education in American Democracy*, drafted by Charles A. Beard, p. 118).

Two Kinds of Geography

George T. Renner

GLOBAL WAR

AMERICAN soldiers are now on five continents. American sailors are on five oceans. American airmen are over seven continents and five oceans. There is no doubt that this is a global war.

There is also no doubt that to understand this struggle calls for a kind of education which our schools have not been supplying. To have prepared against a war such as this would have required a kind of education which our schools never did supply. To successfully prosecute such a war demands a kind of education which neither our people nor our leaders possess even now.

EDUCATIONAL REPERCUSSIONS

SO FAR, however, there has been no general or clear recognition of what kind of education is needed. Some of our highest leaders have suggested that every citizen should buy a map, and on it learn to follow the war moves. This is, of course, not enough. Learning place names, or achieving facility in finding them on a map, has some value, but it never tells one what is at those places, or what are their actual or potential values, or what role they may play in the strategy of either war or peace. These latter things have to be acquired through educational direction, from organized subject-matter experiences and theory. Learning place names from a map no more teaches one geography than an extended shopping spree teaches one economics. Clearly then, a definite program of geographical education seems to be indicated.

Some educational leaders have recently called for teaching of more geography in the public schools. This also would seem not to be the

Geography, the war has emphatically taught us, is important. But what geography? It is convenient, often important, to know places, distances, directions. But geography needs to teach us far more if we are to understand forces in an interdependent world as they operate in an air age. The author of this paper, presented at a meeting of the National Council in New York, is professor of geography in Teachers College, Columbia University.

answer. The geography which we have been teaching has been of almost no value; at least, it has produced no appreciable results. It has been descriptive, not analytic; static, not dynamic. It has been fairy-book geography, not realistic geography. What we do seem to need is an entirely new kind of geographic education, not more of the kind of geography we have been teaching.

JAPAN—A GEOGRAPHICAL FAIRY TALE

IN ORDER to be specific we may well select a specific example. For this purpose Japan will serve as well as any other random example. It is an undeniable fact that our social studies classes have spent an unbelievable amount of time presenting Japan as a cunning little island with tropical climate and small symmetrical mountain cones; a land of rice, paper houses, cherry-blossom festivals, silk kimonos, and chrysanthemums. From this one would almost certainly conclude that Japan were a museum piece and that the Japanese were purposely trying to be funny. Actually Japan is far from being a museum piece, and the Japanese are about the most serious people on earth; they have to be.

Actually, many of the things we have been teaching about Japan are wholly or partially untrue. Even if they were true, however, they could be put together in accordance with geographical theory and established principles of geographic adjustment and relationship so as to give an entirely different picture of Japan. When one does this, the picture of Japan looks about as follows.

JAPAN—SOME GEOGRAPHIC REALISM

INSULAR SITUATION. Japan is a long string of six large and thousands of small islands which hang like a festoon from the Asiatic coast. It approaches the continent at three points. Over each of these land approaches, Japan long ago received the elements in her population. The Japanese are, therefore, an ethnic mixture of Korean, Ainu, and Malayan stocks. These three land approaches are, in Japanese eyes, three Asiatic daggers threatening Japanese security. This fact has left its mark on their national psy-

chology, in much the same way that England's situation off Europe has affected British psychology. For long, Britain attempted to conquer and hold France. Failing in this, she made a military alliance with France. Britain has also held the French Channel Islands, and has helped to maintain the coastal buffer states of Holland and Belgium. Japan's annexation of Formosa, Quelpart, and Korea, and her erection of the puppet buffer states of Manchukuo and North China furnish a surprising parallel.

Insularity and Security. Her insular situation has supplied enough security that Japan has never yet suffered a military defeat. This has helped to create a provincial-mindedness and a conviction of national superiority (even exceeding some Occidental assumptions of superiority). A further result has been the steady increase in human numbers and eventual over-population. Japan's insular security left the Japanese free to develop a careful agriculture, a thriving cottage industry, a lucrative trade with China and Korea, an important fishing industry, a carefully organized social order, and a stable feudal political system.

Penetration, Closed Door, and Modernization. After Magellan's voyage, Europeans came in to trade. Missionaries followed close behind. Both were welcomed. One sect of Christian missionaries seeking temporal power for their church (so the Japanese historians say) planned to seize control of the government. The Japanese became incensed, ejected all foreigners and initiated a closed door policy.

About one hundred years ago, the United States navy, supported by other Powers, forced the Japanese to reopen their country to foreigners. Japan, caught without modern weapons, was powerless to resist. Her national humiliation was abysmal. Japan, however, decided to profit from her humiliation. She sent students abroad to learn science, business, engineering, banking, military and naval tactics, and other vital bodies of information. She built schools, teachers col-

leges, universities, railways, power plants, factories, mills, printing presses, and shipyards. Great industrial centers developed, great commercial ports arose. Tokyo, Osaka, Yokohama, Kobe, and Nagoya became world-famous cities. The fishing industry was expanded, a vast merchant fleet, far larger and finer than that of the United States, was built. By the 1920's, Japan's



CLIMATIC REGIONS OF JAPAN AND EASTERN NORTH AMERICA

population was some 65,000,000 and was increasing nearly one million per year.

Labrador to Cuba—Not Tropical. Japan is not a tropical country. If one were to pick her up and set her down in her correct latitude off the coast of North America (see the map above), this would become immediately apparent. Karafuto Island has a Labrador climate; Hokkaido Island has a New England climate. Northern Honshu is like

New York and New Jersey; southern Honshu is like Maryland and Virginia. Kiushu and Shikoku Islands have a typical cotton-belt climate like the Carolinas. Taiwan Island is the equivalent of Cuba. Measured on such a geographical space scale, one can readily see that rice does not thrive in Labrador and paper houses are a bit anomalous in New England. The cherry-blossom myth also loses some of its convincingness.

Mountains and Hills. Nearly three-fourths of Japan is mountainous or hilly. This is a serious handicap to a country which is only about twice the size of Nebraska. There is very little arable land. Long ago every available acre was farmed. New arable land has been laboriously added through the centuries by draining, diking, filling, and terracing of sloping land. The lowland surfaces have been regraded, the slopes far up into the foothills have been cleared. These latter are too steep for cultivated crops, and hence have been put to tree crops—tea, mulberry (for silkworm feed), and fruits. Forests, yielding regular crops of timber, are grown on the higher mountain slopes.

Hoe and Spade Agriculture. Land has been cultivated more and more intensively: two crops per year are obtained from the soil wherever the summer is long enough. As population has increased, farms have been made smaller and smaller. Now the average farm family is supported on an average area of one acre. Less and less land has been devoted to cotton, tobacco, fruit, and forage; more and more to rice, barley, soy beans, potatoes, and vegetables.

Ocean Pastures. Native grasses are very poor for forage, and hence Japan raises few meat animals. Overcrowding on the land leaves little room for animal husbandry anyway. An acre will yield far more protein via the soy-bean route than via the forage-animal-meat route. Fortunately, Japan is all islands, and hence the villagers fish more than any other people on earth. They have scoured their Inland Sea and their coastal waters; their fleets dot the Sea of Japan; their drab little boats scour the China seas, the Okhotsk Sea, the Indonesian seas, the Siberian rivers, and the Gulf of Alaska, hunting out every bit of edible animal and vegetable matter in those waters. The annual treaty with Russia, giving Japan fishing rights in Siberian waters, is a matter of national concern. For twenty years the voracious Japanese fishermen have been waging undeclared war on our Alaskan fishermen.

Industry from Remnants. All of these practices have failed to yield sufficient food and other

necessaries to the Japanese people. As a consequence increasing numbers of men, women, and children have gone to work in factories at pitifully low wages. Unfortunately Japan's raw materials for manufacturing are very meager. She has almost no coal or petroleum, very little iron or aluminum, very few of the ferro-alloys, very little timber, no tin, leather, wool, or cacao.

Japan has, therefore, bought increasing amounts of Indian jute and sugar, Siamese rice, Chinese and American cotton, American iron and steel, Chilean nitrates, Peruvian copper, Malayan tin, American and Canadian lumber, Philippine hemp and copra, French bauxite and nickel, American, Mexican, and East Indian oil: all of these for her hungry industries and voracious payrolls.

Lacking much timber, Japan manufactures only a small amount of lumber. Houses, therefore, in the industrial centers are often admittedly pretty flimsy. This despite the fact that some winter weather is bitterly cold. Even small pieces of wood are saved and made into matches and toys for export (a match may be a little wood, a bit of volcanic sulphur, and a lot of cheap labor). The profit on such articles is very small indeed, almost beneath notice in richly endowed countries.

JAPAN—NATIONAL POLICIES

COLONIES for All—Except Japan. In the very face of such conditions, Japan has seen other nations, such as Britain, United States, France, and even tiny Holland and decadent Portugal, getting abundant raw materials from vast colonial holdings. Japan admits that she can not understand a world in which other nations could own colonies at her very door step while she herself had none.

The "Mainland Policy." To offset this, Japan developed a "Mainland Policy." She cast longing eyes at the unsettled Maritime Provinces, but Russia beat her to them. Next she saw empty, undeveloped Manchuria; but Russia beat her there, too. And so she fought Russia for it and won. America, not appreciating what was at stake, hastened to negotiate a treaty between Japan and Russia, much to the disgust of a few Americans such as Homer Lea and other world-minded individuals.

Corea lay between Japan and Manchuria, and so the Japanese annexed that land also. Corea was overpopulated and was of little more than strategic value to Japan. Chinese colonists poured into Manchuria so that it has proved no outlet

for Japan's millions. It has, however, yielded wheat, lumber, soy beans, iron, and coal to the conqueror. The quantity yielded, though, has not been sufficient to meet Japan's needs.

The China "Incident." Japan tried to buy China's raw cotton and to sell to her manufactured textiles, but American-educated Chinese, employing foreign capital, built cotton textile mills in China itself. Finally in the 1930's, America's Agricultural Adjustment Administration began raising the price of American raw cotton. Japan, with limited resources, found it harder and harder to buy, and against mounting tariff walls she found it harder and harder to sell cotton wares. Hence, Japan moved into China, bombed all the new Chinese cotton textile mills and seized China's best cotton and rice lands. Whereupon she announced a new "Co-prosperity Sphere" for the Orient. China, however, offered no real solution of Japan's problems. The real solution lay far to the south, in the East Indian lands. These, with the exception of Java, are nearly empty and largely undeveloped. These lands offered outlets for Japanese colonization, and almost unlimited raw materials for Japanese industry.

The United States, with its rich resources and lack of population crowding, has found it advantageous to expand commercially into Central America and the West Indies, and even beyond these, into the relatively empty lands of the tropical parts of South America. The lure, therefore, of the East Indies and beyond them, the well-nigh empty tropical part of Australia, for congested resource-poor Japan, is easy to understand. Japanese expansion southward, however, looked rather difficult; Britain, Holland, and the United States stood in the way.

Birth Control, Starvation, or Aggression. Japan, therefore, had two choices: first, to stop her national population increase by birth control; or second, to go on increasing and starve to death. Japan's sociologists, biologists, and economists knew the facts, but they were powerless. They could do nothing because Japan's religious institutions decreed no birth control, and to enforce this, Japan's church leaders fortified themselves behind the myth of divine origin and infallibility. In Japan, as anywhere else, science is always powerless before a religion's infallibility myth. The Japanese state church therefore must assume the moral responsibility for the political results of their policies. This is the real crux of the whole matter of Japanese "aggression," because Japan's third alternative was to fight the United

States, Britain, France, and Holland for the Indies. The choice lay between rejecting its religious dogma and waging war. Japan chose war.

UNGEOGRAPHICAL THINKING

TO MOST Americans, little more than a year ago, the idea that Japan would dare to provoke a war with these four countries seemed preposterous. Here again, Americans' lack of geographical education betrayed them. They were unable to discern even the rudiments of human ecology in Japan, and they could not remotely visualize the pattern of Japanese expansion. Current politics and history in the Far East were largely meaningless to the American people—even to many American leaders—lacking any geographical philosophy. We failed to recognize who our friends would be and who our enemies would be. We failed to forge a ring of diplomacy and steel around Japan while there remained ample time to do so. We did not even remotely see that we must either fight in the western Pacific or get out of the entire Pacific area. The debates in Congress of men such as Hamilton Fish, and scores of others, suggest that many of our leaders had not the remotest idea of actual geographic relations in the Pacific. Many even exhibited marked sentiments against the very nations who were to be our allies against Japan. They have since retracted these expressions of sentiment, but they have never admitted the fact that their ungeographical thinking made the war not only possible but practically inevitable. Many of them have been returned to office although their thinking is still ungeographical, because the American people also think so ungeographically that they are usually unable to discover the basic faults in such leaders.

America was doubly betrayed by her lack of geographic education. Her citizens not only failed to know the geography of Japan (and of every other country on earth, including their own) but they also failed to appreciate the gross geography of the Pacific Basin. We Americans visualized the geography of the Pacific in terms of naval power. We knew that we controlled the center of the Pacific and all the entrances to that ocean, and reasoned therefrom that our dominance was secure. Moreover, we knew that the position of Japan was, in terms of naval geography, so weak as to be hopeless ultimately.

The airplane, however, had drawn a new geography of the Pacific. The Japanese knew this and planned their war to be a matter of seizing air bases around the Pacific rim. From there on it

was to be a process of marching and flying around the Pacific Basin until American naval forces were left in impotence in the center of the ocean. In the new strategic geography the position of Japan is strong; that of the United States relatively weak. This is further aggravated by the fact that France has been overwhelmed and betrayed, Holland knocked out, Russia fully occupied in Europe, and both Britain and America simultaneously involved in the Atlantic war theatre. Least reassuring of all is the fact that America has not yet been either fully "air conditioned" or "geographically conditioned" in her thinking as to the prosecution of the war.

FALLACIES AND REALITIES

NOW what lessons can we learn from all this? There are several points too obvious to miss. (1) Japan is not a little tropical country. (2) She is not a land of rice, paper houses, and kimonos. (3) The Japanese are not a near-sighted people who build imitation battleships, toy guns, and play airplanes. (4) She is not a nation whose "natural" interests lie westward on the Asiatic continent (therefore not affecting us). And yet this is what all of our social studies programs are teaching or implying.

What then are the realities about Japan? Some seven points in Japan's human geography give the answer. (1) Japan's man-land-resource ratio has reached an utterly impossible situation. (2) Japanese social and religious institutions constitute a dagger pointed at the world's throat. (3) The geography of Japanese aggression became perfectly clear as early as 1932. (4) Against this aggression, Russia and China were our natural allies, and yet we, hermit-like, ignored China and berated Russia. (5) Japan herself told us she intended to move southward—and all geographical theory also indicated that she would do so. (6) We Americans, knowing no adult geography, formed no military and naval alliance with Britain or Holland. We just retreated into an imaginary western hemisphere (a hemisphere which exists on a Mercator map but does not exist, as such, on a pole-centered air-age map). (7) Now, a million young Americans may die to save us, because we knew nothing about the geography of Japan.

EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS

AT THE outset, it was pointed out that this discussion of Japan was merely one small random sample of the world we live in. It would seem to indicate that we have lacked the necessary geographic education to enable us to know the other nations of the world, their value, their role in international strategy, or even their relation to our national defense.

We have not known who were our friends or enemies, or where our *defensive frontiers* lay. Instead of studying such things, we have regarded geography as an elementary subject, while English, mathematics, history, and economics were grown-up subjects.

Since geography is a reasoned subject, we could not teach much of it at the primary and elementary levels. Hence what we did teach we made into meaningless little description. America has, therefore, known only fairy-book geography. Our leaders have not been equipped to lead us. Many of our newspaper columnists, our writers, and others who make public opinion, have known only fairy-book geography. Neither our military nor naval academies have required geography as part of the education of army and navy leaders. We the people have had no intelligent public opinion, geographically speaking, about even the rest of the United States, let alone about the outside world.

The Air Age has brought other nations and cultures, their intrigues, opinions, and wars, to our very doorstep. It looks as if we will have to know them intimately. We are rapidly seeing that this is a planetary war, tailored out of the realities of geography. It is time that we also begin to see that the peace is going to be a global peace. Moreover, the problem of maintaining peace is also going to be a global problem, tailored from geographic realities.

Either our way of life and thinking as a nation is going to be world-wide and geographically directed and conditioned, or we are finished as a great nation. The task of developing geographic education for America is a large matter. So far, we have not begun to develop a program to accomplish this task. In most instances the situation has not even been correctly diagnosed.

Teach for the War—and a Future

Samuel C. Withers, Jr.

A SOCIAL-SCIENCE and history teacher not long ago told me, "My students do not want to face the reality of this war. They object when I teach them in terms of the war, and they refuse to be guided into their post-school work by the psychology of the war alone. They say they want the 'real thing.' Well, darn it," said my friend, "this war is the real thing. It's all there is now, and it's what they have to live in a hundred per cent."

What my friend said was nothing but the truth, but it was not the whole truth. Today's students can not be taught the world their older brothers and sisters were taught, nor can they set foot in it after their formal training has ended. They can not return to it ever.

Today's pupils must be taught burning patriotism. They must be taught the real necessity of fighting in some way to give to all the rights that our Constitution guarantees. They must also be made to understand the effect of the problems that appertain to fighting the war: the effect of war on marriage and the family unit, the social as well as economic results of a possible inflation, and so on. This is one side of the problem of teaching social science today. It can hardly be too strongly emphasized. But it is not the whole problem.

ADMITTEDLY, our social structure after this war will be new in many respects. Some changes may be forecast while others remain for us to discover. One truth that we can not escape, however, is the simple one that what will come out will be an outgrowth of our previous society.

Here, then, is the other side of the social problem that must be taught. Our society today, and the society of tomorrow must be taught as the latest emergence of a long social history. Perhaps more than ever before it is now necessary to give the student of social science and history the

significance of our background. On this side the student must be taught the war and its all-encompassing social issues as objectively as possible. Objectivity is a prime requisite for understanding, and we will sorely need the understanding of today's students in a post-war society. The economic and social causes of the war can not be taught alone as the monstrous ego-maniacal appetite of gangster countries.

The social degradation of Germany accompanying the economic collapse which followed the last war in that country must be emphasized fully as much as Germany's will-to-power psyche. Only by the perspective that such teaching can give will today's students be able to make tomorrow's world an equitably peaceful one in which to live and found their families.

SUCH a bilateral method of teaching social science is not accomplished simply. The two sides can not be taught as distinct from each other. The win-the-war psychology can be interposed in the larger view only by an intelligent explanation of how the two are related.

As an analogy, a sailor, shipwrecked and drifting in an open boat, is in desperate need of water and food. It is his immediate problem only, however. He will have other problems to face upon a safe return to civilization. Of course, the fact that he will have other problems to face does not in the least abate his thirst and hunger of the day. Unless his immediate problem is solved it will be his last.

If he ever reaches home safely his life will be resumed in much the same pattern that existed before he was wrecked. His thinking may be somewhat changed. His problems will be not those of his shipwrecked days, but those that arise from day to day, usually related to the past, but in new settings.

Our students must learn today that the war is the "real thing"; just as real as the sailor's thirst. In so far as this is so, they must be adjusted in every way to our conduct of the war. We can not, however, afford to teach them the war as the *only* thing; their years of full citizenship are the years beyond the war.

The author of this brief reminder that we are teaching for a long future as well as for an emergency teaches at the North Bennington High School, North Bennington, Vermont.

Planning and Organizing Cooperative Community Projects

Lowry Nelson

HOW can a teacher, who is aware of his responsibility to integrate the school into the life of the community, achieve this desired relationship, when it does not already exist? What devices can he use to stimulate community participation? Many teachers and other community leaders have found the answer to these questions in cooperative community projects.

The development of such projects, however, requires first, the exercise of a good deal of careful thinking to get the kind of undertaking that has the best chance of achieving the desired end; second, wise planning to insure maximum participation; and third, the exercise of much tact and discretion in the execution of the plans.

The first step, of course, is to decide on the nature of the project to be undertaken. Since projects are related to, and grow out of, recognized problems, this step involves the discovery of social needs. A problem exists in the social sense when there is an awareness of maladjustment, or deviation from what is normal or ideal. The person is aware of maladjustment when, for example, he is unable to pay his bills at the first of the month, when he is the victim of an unfriendly act on the part of someone whom he has expected to act in a friendly way, or when he is ill.

A community, although it is made up of individuals, does not act as an individual, and it usually has to be made aware of unsatisfactory social conditions. Community problems, therefore, are recognized first by leaders such as teachers, preachers, research specialists, business leaders, and others.

These practical suggestions for selecting and carrying on community projects related to the work of the schools come from a professor of sociology in the University of Minnesota.

TYPES OF COMMUNITY PROBLEMS

SOcial problems in terms of what might be called their "visibility" are of two general kinds; first, those which represent such obvious and dramatic deviation from normal that there is a spontaneous recognition of the maladjustment. An extreme example of this type of problem, of course, is a crisis situation created by such events as economic panic or some kind of disaster, such as fire, hurricane, or earthquake. No research is necessary to reveal the existence of maladjustments of this kind or to convince the community that they exist. Other cases of these more obvious social problems are extremely common and frequently encountered by the teacher in the school. For example, he may recognize among his students cases of illness or malnutrition, irregular attendance, inadequate school equipment, and a host of other situations that he can hardly avoid seeing. All of these cases, incidentally, might with imagination be utilized as bases for cooperative community projects.

The other kind of social problems are the less apparent ones, which require a certain amount of imagination and skilled observation to discover because there is no dramatic deviation from the local norm. Local communities sometimes need to see themselves in relation to other social units. In other words, there is involved here a comparison with the standards characteristic of other groups or of a larger group than the local community. An example of this occurred in Arkansas a few years ago when representatives to the American Library Association heard a report that Arkansas was the most "bookless" state in the union. These representatives returned with the message to Arkansas, with the result that the PTA, American Legion Auxiliary, and the Arkansas Federation of Women's Clubs joined in promoting the idea of establishing better library service. In 1937, the state legislature appropriated \$100,000 to launch a statewide library-extension

program. Today Arkansas has a very good library program.

Now it may well be that within the State of Arkansas there were many people who recognized this need but who were unable to make the rest of the state aware of it. The report in the national meeting represented a reflection upon the national prestige of the State of Arkansas and constituted a potent argument for the local people to restore their status.

This comparative study of local areas in relation to other areas and to the larger whole, whether it be state or nation, is a fruitful device for the discovery of social problems. The most important source of data for such comparative studies is, of course, the United States Census. In addition, there are many state statistical reports which contain valuable information which can be used in this connection, to enable counties or other local units to compare themselves with others, and with state averages.

Problems may also be classified as of immediate or remote significance. By immediate we mean the more urgent or those which require attention without delay. This is an important criterion in the final decision as to the problem to be used as the basis for the cooperative project. Other considerations might be listed, as follows: (1) The project should be modest in scope. One should not attempt to reform the community all at once. Such a limited project, for example, as the painting of the school, the provision of screens or curtains for the windows, improvement of the school grounds, the school-lunch program, or school gardens might be undertaken as a beginning.¹ (2) At least for a beginning project it should be of such a character that community cooperation will not be too difficult. That means, of course, that it should not be too controversial. (3) The project should be one where results will show in tangible form.

ONCE the general nature of the project has been tentatively decided, the question of procedure in its execution becomes paramount. In this connection, the following steps seem to be logical and necessary.

PROCEDURES

1. The initiator of the project (teacher, preacher, chamber of commerce, school board, social

¹ For an excellent account of how one rural school teacher introduced projects of this type, see Iman E. Schatzmann, *The Country School at Home and Abroad* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1942), p. 167 ff.

worker) should discuss possible community action with other key persons such as leaders of other organizations in the community. At first this may be done very informally and incidentally, simply to plant the idea here and there. It is important that the initiator of the project should keep his or her personality pretty much in the background and resort to the device of indirect suggestion to stimulate thinking by others. It may possibly happen that someone else in the community may take the idea and implement it. If such a person is a real leader that is all to the good.

2. If the response to the first step appears to justify going further with the project, then several key people would come together and carefully discuss the matter and constitute themselves an informal committee for further discussion and more careful outlining of the project.

3. Depending on the nature of the project there may be need for further study and diagnosis. It may be found essential to undertake a survey to gather more facts about the problem. If so, this committee might launch such a survey. It is, however, well for the committee at this stage to take the community into its confidence and get their full acceptance of the survey if not the project itself. Perhaps a mass meeting may be called for this purpose, and publicity may be given to the project also through the local paper and other media. If a mass meeting is called, then the occasion should be utilized to set up a permanent committee. It might be pointed out that in the case of school project the PTA might well constitute this "mass" meeting.

4. If a survey is to be made, then one competent person must be placed in charge. Frequent consultation with the committee, of course, is essential, and the whole community should receive regular reports of progress. Surveys should be decided upon only after very careful consideration of the need for additional data. Moreover, they should be kept simple. That is to say, the schedule should call only for the information needed for this particular project and should not in any case attempt a complete census of the community. Before a schedule is designed, a careful examination of available sources of information on the community is highly desirable. People unfamiliar with the U. S. Census and the data assembled in county and state offices frequently insert unnecessary questions in survey schedules because of this lack of knowledge of what is available.

5. Interpretations of the facts gathered by the

survey must be shared by the community if the project is to be their responsibility. This interpretation really becomes the *diagnosis* of the social situation which it is supposed to remedy. The facts and the figures gathered may be presented in rather simple form, either by charts or tables. The members of the community must have full opportunity to express their judgment as to what the facts mean.

Projects then become the *treatment* for the situation as diagnosed by the leaders and the community members. The organization for carrying the project into effect should be arrived at by democratic process so that the community will feel that it is its project and not the teacher's.

By way of further comment, it should be pointed out that not always will all of these steps in procedure be involved. They may be

short-circuited. The important thing to keep in mind is that the project should be in fact a community project and not the special undertaking of any one individual. Here is where the exercise of tact and discretion, mentioned earlier, comes into play. The real leader will not be concerned over the question of receiving due credit, but only with the larger question of getting the job done.

Finally, the general objective of the cooperative community project is two-fold: first (and perhaps least important), is the actual improvements in the community which result from the effective execution of the project itself; and second, the development of a community "we" feeling. Like so many of the better things of life, this second objective is realized as a by-product of the first.

The war creates many opportunities for constructive social service on the part of pupils. The services are desirable as an expression of loyalty and a release of tensions among young citizens. The educational value of these services for the welfare of the group must be recognized and emphasized. These opportunities, wisely used, may become part of a desirable "apprenticeship in citizenship"—equivalent in civic education to work experience in the vocational field. Many schools may well develop programs of social education built around a core of civic experience. Many of these should become part of the permanent program of the schools. The Commission recommends that:

pupils should be encouraged to participate responsibly in planning and carrying out such activities as the purchase and sale of war stamps and bonds, the collection of needed scrap, the development of rationing and price-control programs, and the development of informed community opinion . . .

aid by school pupils in such community enterprises as harvesting crops during critical seasons should be encouraged

the school should give full support to the program and activities of the Red Cross teachers of social studies should cooperate with leaders of youth-serving agencies in the community, especially with those concerned with civilian defense, in the development of constructive experiences for pupils . . .

(National Council for the Social Studies, *The Social Studies Mobilize for Victory*, p. 13f).

How a High School Used Its Community as a Laboratory for Social Education

C. C. Harvey

ILLINOIS is shaped like an arrowhead. The town of Tamms is located twenty miles north of the point, which is the famous river town of Cairo where the Ohio flows into the Mississippi. The region is rich in historical folklore, its geographical features are interesting, and there are many social problems and conditions which are peculiar to Little Egypt, the name given to this part of southern Illinois. How far south Little Egypt is may be judged by the facts that cotton is grown and the people talk with the accent characteristic of the South. Across the Mississippi to the west lies an interesting section of Missouri; Kentucky is on the opposite side of the Ohio, to the southeast. Some of the towns in Little Egypt—Cairo, Thebes, Mounds, Grand Chain, Karnak—have very interesting historical backgrounds. Thus the setting is ideal for the development of projects of historical, civic, sociological, and geographical significance related to the locality.

At the beginning of the 1941-42 school year the Tamms Community High School started a program designed better to meet the needs of its students. As few of its graduates attend college, and as drastic changes in the traditional preparatory course could be made without creating serious complications, it was decided to attempt to supplement the curriculum and the allied activity program with projects to emphasize work experiences and community participation. Five projects, or groups of projects, were undertaken: (1) community survey; (2) study of local problems; (3) the writing of local history; (4) starting a school museum; and (5) school programs based on themes of local significance.

The author of this account of how good theory made better practice, formerly principal of the Tamms (Illinois) High School, is now principal of the Rock River High School, Rock River, Wyoming.

COMMUNITY SURVEY

A SURVEY of the community, conducted by the classes, grew out of a unit of study which dealt with the characteristics desirable in a community. The students first attempted an evaluation of the community using criteria taken from a chart in their civics textbook, but found that it was not satisfactory and that they did not know their community well enough to evaluate it intelligently. The teacher gathered booklets which contained outlines and suggestions for making a community survey. The classes then made their own outline, which developed thirteen headings: community organization, including government; population; geography; transportation, communication, and public utilities; housing; recreation; health; religion; education; livelihood of inhabitants; organizations to promote civic and cultural interests; youth organizations; and community problems.

The survey was finished during the first semester. During the latter part of the year the students tried to answer the questions: "What improvements can be made in the community?" and "What are the points at which students can help to improve conditions?" Instead of emphasizing "Something ought to be done," each student asked himself, "What can I do?" Among the specific projects and activities which resulted directly or indirectly from the survey were a study of out-of-school leisure-time activities of the students in the high school, a study of health problems in the community, and a survey of occupational opportunities for youth in the locality.

STUDY OF LOCAL PROBLEMS

FROM the results of the community survey and from other sources, the students in the sociology class compiled a list of problems which were more or less characteristic of the locality. Recurring floods result in many serious social problems. There is much unemployment in the

region and a large number of people depend upon public charity for a livelihood. Very serious problems concern the large number of Negroes who live in this portion of the Mississippi Valley. Housing, recreation, health, and education are the basis of vexing social problems. The people for the most part are lacking in energy, ambition, and resourcefulness. Very little of the land is suitable for farming and there are few industries which offer opportunities for employment. It is extremely hard for young people to find enough security to be able to marry, settle down, and lead normal lives. These generalizations are given to show the significance of a study of local problems in connection with social education in this particular high school.

This list of social problems typical of the region was given emphasis in all social studies classes, but the sociology class made most use of it the first semester; in the second semester a class called Social Studies succeeded the sociology course and tackled a number of the specific problems. In the sociology course a term project was built around the topic, "Planning My Life." Although this activity seemed somewhat meaningless after December 7, it gave students practice in planning, in realizing their own capacities and limitations, and in understanding the varied factors which must be taken into consideration in making plans for the future.

The second-semester course was a fusion of mental hygiene, social problems, and guidance. The group selected the topic "Growing Up" around which to build a term project. Growing up in the physical sense is only one aspect of this topic; the main thing emphasized was "growing up" socially—becoming a competent and responsible adult. The process of social and personal growth, of course, is interrelated with and influenced by factors in the social environment.

Toward the end of this course the students decided to make a study of the mental hygiene of the community as viewed against the background of social problems. They started with a study of community health and of how physical health is related to mental health, and at this point the group became somewhat bewildered and the project bogged down. No wonder! The rate of tuberculosis in the county was found to be nine times as great as for the entire state of Illinois. Many of the persons—both men and women—formerly employed at a local silica plant were suffering from incurable cases of silicosis. Malnutrition and pellagra, which are due to faulty diet, were very common. The mosquito-infested

swamps breed malaria and a large percentage of people have malaria germs in their blood which make their bodies weak and lower their resistance to other diseases. A disease of the eyes—trachoma, which most people think is not found anywhere in America—is so common that the government has established free clinics for its treatment. When all the other problems of health which are also bound to exist are considered, it is no wonder that the students did not get into the mental aspects of the health situation.

During the year the social studies classes made a number of trips to study social problems and observe local conditions. The students interviewed social workers, doctors, nurses, school officials, and agricultural agents. However, individual and group observation and investigation was the method used most extensively in securing information about local conditions. An example of this was a survey made of the occupational opportunities for youth in the locality. Using the suggestions contained in a booklet of the American Youth Commission, a small group planned the survey in a class and carried it out as an NYA work-experience project. Much information was compiled and used in the elementary civics class where a study of occupations constituted about half of the year's work, and in the Social Studies class composed mostly of seniors who were beginning to think about the opportunities for employment after graduation.

WRITING OF HISTORIES

ONE day in a class discussion a girl remarked that her mother was a member of the first group to graduate from the high school. A boy replied that his grandfather was the one who circulated the petition to get the high school started. This stimulated various students to relate interesting things which they knew about the history of the school, and led to a suggestion that the class gather information and write the history of the high school. An outline was made and groups of students assigned to various topics and years. During the next two months the group collected as much information as possible from old yearbooks, school newspapers, the county newspaper files, records of the school in the principal's office and board of education, and interviews with graduates, former board members, and residents of the community. When the group had finished assembling facts, two girls who had a greater aptitude for writing than the others were chosen to consolidate the material into a year-by-year history of the school.

The history was published as a special issue of the school newspaper. On the day the paper was distributed the high school principal was handed a package which contained a collection of pictures, clippings, and documents of various kinds relating in some way to events in the history of Tamms. A few days later when the subject of term papers came up in the American history course, the group was unanimous in the choice of a topic. The students wanted to make a study of local history. As plans for the study and writing of local history progressed, the class was divided into groups according to the interests of individual members.

The members who lived outside of Tamms went to work on the histories of their respective communities. One boy undertook to write a history of the entire Little Egypt section of Illinois. Another boy started to collect stories connected with the Ohio and Mississippi. A girl started to collect information about interesting persons in the history of the region.

When the project was finished, the class had a volume of papers about the history of Tamms and the other communities which sent students to the high school—Elco, Mill Creek, Sandusky, and Unity; a long paper on the history of Little Egypt; an account of the flood of 1937; and a collection of river folklore stories connected with the region. These were bound and placed in the school library.

STARTING A SCHOOL MUSEUM

THE high school resorted to an auction to raise money. Among the objects which students dug up from various places and brought to be auctioned off were books over a hundred years old, pottery from Indian mounds which were numerous in the vicinity, an ancient spinning wheel, grandmother's old clock, and firearms used about the time of Daniel Boone. At the end of the auction the local hardware merchant was moved to make a speech in which he offered the suggestion that those who had purchased antiques donate them to the high school and that they be preserved there for their historical interest. He also stated that the basement of his hardware store was packed with antiquated machinery and farm implements, and that the school was welcome to select things of interest for the collection.

This proposal struck a responsive chord in both students and patrons. Other objects were added to the collection and the NYA students fixed up a small room in the building for what

was called the school museum. After it was started many visited the high school to see the objects.

PROGRAMS ON LOCAL THEMES

TWO school programs were based on themes of local significance. These were held in connection with Citizenship Recognition Day and commencement week, and drew on a great deal of information which had been compiled about the community.

The Citizenship Recognition Day program was a joint enterprise of the school and community. However, the entire program was planned and carried out at the high school and the students were the chief performers. The observance was built around the topic "Becoming a Competent and Responsible Citizen." It emphasized the role a good citizen should play in the affairs of his community and the nation in wartime. A pageant of a historical nature called "Then and Now in Tamms" was written by the English teacher and given as part of the program.

The graduation program was based on the theme "Our Community Today." Although one boy was rather critical of local conditions and urged that the whole countryside needed to catch up with the twentieth century, most of the student speakers pointed out the achievements of the high school, related interesting things about the history of the locality, and tried to arouse community spirit by discussing things in which citizens could take pride. For example, a girl gave the names of the boys who served in the armed forces during the First World War and the names of those who are serving now.

Perhaps the high point of the graduation program was the annual sermon to the senior class. One of the local ministers had been rather severe in criticism of the work of the high school, declaring that its program was taking too much of the time of boys and girls, causing them to lose interest in certain things which were important, such as participating in church activities, and encouraging them to "meddle" in things which they should not be concerned with, now concluded: "... When we see a chance to make our community and the world a better place in which to live, we ought to use it. ... We have watched the efforts of the high school during the year and we take pride in the fact that when the teachers and students saw a situation which needed correcting, they did something about it. ... Let us do something about it, and join hands to make the community a better place in which to live."

Vitalizing Verbal Illustrations

Frederic T. Neumann

IN OUR endeavor to make proper use of visualized devices in teaching, many of us unwittingly ignore or subordinate the traditional tool of the spoken word—a tool which, incidentally, is traditional because it is essential to human progress. In this period when the radio stands among the foremost molders of human conduct, we can not help hearing from all sides the evidence that verbal illustrations, like the New Testament parables, far from being bookish, have a down-to-earth practical significance beyond challenge by anyone interested in guiding the thoughts and emotions of man. Obviously then, we who are teachers must never forget or hesitate to resort to verbal illustrations when, with but a little ingenuity, we can effectively and profitably employ them.

It is unfortunate, however, that words alone do not necessarily make an illustration vital. Perhaps some conscientious teachers, realizing this and feeling that "verbalization" is an art beyond their powers of mastery, intentionally restrict its practice in their classroom. Thereby they unintentionally restrict their students' powers of comprehension. In this situation, we have a type of educational "bottleneck" which places undue emphasis upon particular devices, such as the visualized, and, through overwork, dooms them to failure—or at least reduces the utility that they would provide if they were used in conjunction with, rather than in place of, such other devices as the verbal.

In seeking a solution to this problem—a solution that would be useful to all teachers even though they possessed none of the aptitudes of the literary genius—I reasoned, not deductively from the accepted principles of psychology, but

inductively from classroom experimentation and observation. My answer might be stated as the simple formula that the vitalized verbal illustration is, first, pertinent to the subject matter, second, personal to the student, and third, provocative of emotional as well as intellectual response.

DOUBTLESS we all agree, with respect to the first characteristic, that an illustration should clearly concern the matter which it is supposed to explain. However, we must not overlook the underlying implication that the words used should be those best understood by the student, and not those which best describe the matter to be illustrated—unless, of course, the teacher wishes first to explain the explanation. In this latter case, the illustration will either fail at the outset or become long and "labored" and leave the student depressed rather than impressed.

Concerning the second characteristic, that the illustration must be personal to the student, we should bear in mind that, whereas children may have vivid imaginations, the adolescent boys and girls of the secondary school all too often can not purposefully direct their imaginations. They are at an age when they become especially aware of themselves. Their physiological and social frontiers are expanding, but always from them personally as the hubs of their own little universes. Although they include others in their universes, they include them primarily as reflections. In brief, they find it difficult to put themselves in others' shoes. Consequently the illustrations that are best understood by the secondary-school student are those that are built about him as a center and not those that demand him to sympathize with someone else. In other words, the illustration, to be meaningful, must be peculiar to his universe, and therefor personal to the student himself.

As for the third characteristic, that the illustration must be provocative of emotional as well as intellectual response, we shall do well to remember that not even the highly intelligent individual can divorce himself completely from his emotions. Until we recognize that the student has more than an intellect and that it is our duty to

Oral teaching in recent years has often become confused with lecturing. Its consequent condemnation is highly unfortunate, for actually a teacher who knows the background of his students can do much to relate their own experience to new ideas and understandings. Mr. Neumann writes from his experience as a teacher in the New York Institute for the Education of the Blind, New York City.

utilize and direct, rather than criticize and suppress, his emotions, we as teachers shall be using only half the facilities available to us and accomplishing only half the goal attainable by us. Of course, the difficulty implicit in these suggestions is that the teacher must understand both the student's mental capacity and his emotional frame of reference. Yet it is possible, without undertaking a psychoanalysis of each student, to recognize those general sets of circumstances which prompt in most students a normal emotional response. Once the teacher becomes aware of the mental capacity and emotional frame of reference of his students, or of any particular student, he can construct his illustrations so that they become an integral part not only of the student's understanding but of his feelings also.

Furthermore, the illustration, as the third characteristic suggests, must produce in the student a response—both intellectual and emotional. Customarily, mere receptivity by mind and heart is not enough because it does not provide an experience which makes for a lasting impression. As an alternative, it frequently proves profitable to disconcert or provoke the student, not by antagonizing him, but by challenging him to master a situation. This distinction is significant since all too often the teacher, in trying to stimulate action by being disconcerting, simply provokes retaliation in kind. On the other hand, if this "disconcerting" can remain part of the teacher's equipment and not become a phase of his personality, his students will accept his provocations as challenges to advance against a common obstacle rather than as taunts to be defied. Whatever methods be employed, the illustration must produce within that individual a definite emotional and intellectual response.

IN THE application of this formula for vitalizing verbal illustrations, teachers, while agreeing that the illustrative material must be pertinent to the subject matter and personal to the student, may differ as to the degree of emotional and intellectual provocation that should be employed. There are those who contend that so-called "extreme" illustrations are absurd because the student's immaturity limits his range

of expression and feeling and incapacitates him to appreciate man's deeper sensibilities. Others maintain that "extreme" illustrations are indispensable because the student's immaturity, rather than limiting his range of feeling, diminishes his sensibility and capacity for self-expression on all emotional levels and, therefore, demands extreme situations in order to produce in the student a discernible response and a lasting impression.

Actually, important as this difference of opinion may be in the teacher's total relations with his students, it is, in this case, only secondary. The prime factor for all teachers to bear in mind persistently is that the illustration, whether it be extreme or commonplace, be drawn directly from the student's experiences. If these experiences are purposefully selected and sincerely presented as illustrations, they can be made to catch the student's attention and produce in him the required reaction.

In my own classroom, I have discovered that the "serious" student, either capable or mediocre, can be provoked to thought and action by ordinary situations and commonplace illustrations. On the other hand, the attention of the frivolous student, either capable or mediocre, with his tendency to "laugh off" life in general, can be caught only by extraordinary situations and extreme illustrations. Obviously, if the teacher is to apply successfully any formula for effective verbal demonstration, he must first understand both the emotional frames of reference and the intellectual capacities of his students, and then fit the formula to these dimensions of his students. Since it is quite unlikely that any group will contain but a single type of person, the teacher must consider it an indispensable part of his paraphernalia always to be prepared to give, within reason, as many illustrations as there are types of individuals in his class.

Recognizing and utilizing this fact, I have found, in actual classroom experience, that verbal illustrations can be vitalized for any student on the secondary-school level provided the teacher makes the illustrations pertinent to the subject matter, personal to the student, and provocative of emotional as well as intellectual response.

Current Events for Civic Competence

R. H. Gemmecke

NO ONE need argue that any attempt to teach current events presents us with problems. In the first place the related social studies course is very full. Second, it may often appear that the events discussed in history classes for three or four days of the week could not possibly bear any relation to news items. This is perhaps less true of American than of world history, however, and it should seldom if ever be true of civics, economics, sociology, and problems courses. Third, many younger, and some older, high school pupils present problems of restlessness, shallowness of thinking, and, because of inadequate background, inability to evaluate trends and movements.

If current-events teaching is to have value, we must discontinue the methods we so frequently use: study of the "news" of the week followed by brief discussion of short articles or clippings found in a paper. The procedure is well enough known. Papers are handed out on Monday; teacher looks at his copy a few minutes before school starts Friday morning. A large number of students haven't read the paper when class opens, so time is taken in class to read what should have been absorbed days before. Then for the last ten or fifteen minutes we "discuss." Yet by using properly or more efficiently some or all of the materials that are or can be made available we can all make current-events time valuable and enjoyable.

Five types of material are recommended: (1) maps, (2) weekly publications planned for school use, (3) more mature publications, (4) publications of popularizing and of propaganda groups, and (5) other general reading.

MAPS

FAILURE to use maps is bound to result in such poor concepts of location and proportion as to make of the world, in the minds of students, a confused jungle, the principal features of which are four or five countries, a couple of

oceans, three or four national capitals, and maybe two or three rivers. When we are careless about maps our students gather queer notions. England is as large as Germany. Vichy is a vague dot from which news items issue concerning France. Tokio, Shanghai, and Singapore are three Asiatic cities and therefore close together. India and Africa shrink when rarely mentioned, and expand when they figure often in the news. North is up and south is down, and well-behaved rivers always flow south.

Much time should be spent in the study of maps, physical, political, and economic. Comparison of areas, distances, and transportation facilities is imperative. I submit that half of the time in current events might well be spent in working with maps of Europe, Asia, Africa, and America. Our students should do more freehand drawing at the blackboard. We should do more drawing of maps of individual countries and not so much of continents. A 6 x 9-inch map of Europe is hardly a teaching device. In a few weeks of constructive map study an indifferent class can become a group of young experts on spelling, location, and identification.

There is one requirement for all this: the teacher must know more than the pupils. There is more to a map than the grill of lines, the dots, the blue of the seas, and the names of countries. A map is a document. It should be studied, and its symbols learned.

SCHOOL MAGAZINES

SECOND in my list, probably first in order of usage, are those publications planned for school use, such as the *Weekly News Review*, *Our Times*, and *Junior Scholastic*. Such current-events papers, it seems to me, should measure up to certain standards: (1) they should be suited to the vocabulary range of the students; (2) they should be inexpensive; (3) they should emphasize current trends rather than report on a host of unrelated incidents; and (4) they should lend to the development of skills in reading, independent study, and weighing of facts in a controversy.

I believe that we should use a two-fold procedure with current-events papers: (1) require the

The author of these suggestions is a teacher of social studies in the Elkhart, Indiana, High School.

students to master the bulk of the material in the paper each week; (2) take the current-events time in class for three or four weeks running to develop one topic in as interesting a way as possible. Reporting on isolated events is of little value. Furthermore, reading of current-events papers alone is inadequate. When these youngsters leave us they don't read *Weekly News Review*, *Our Times*, or the *American Observer*. Therefore I feel that the current-events paper should be supplemented with news from other sources, and that establishing habits of using such sources is one of the purposes of current-events teaching.

GENERAL MAGAZINES

THIS leads me to my comments on good magazines. Sophomores are not too young to tackle the *Nation*, *New Republic*, *Atlantic*, and *Harpers*, *Survey Graphic*, *Time*, *Newsweek*, *National Geographic*, and *Life*, but these and others of their caliber should be used only with the guidance of a well-informed teacher. I like the plan of keeping a record on small cards of articles read by students, and expecting each student to make a brief oral report to the teacher alone. What if some articles are sometimes above the student's head? Aren't they sometimes above the average adult's head too? We simply must get this "hunt the easy way" philosophy out of our systems if democracy is to survive.

One suggestion: If you are short of funds, you will find that most of the publishers will give you a special school rate for an eight- or nine-months subscription. A small fee of five or ten cents from each student in social studies in the average high school will make it possible to have a small number of good magazines in each of several classrooms. Naturally, some class time should be taken for the reading of good magazines.

PAMPHLETS, POPULARIZATIONS, AND PROPAGANDA

FOURTH in my list of suggestions is that we make some use of the materials being put out by various organizations concerned with popular dissemination of knowledge and views. Interesting materials for high school students are obtainable for little or nothing from such organizations as the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, the Foreign Policy Association, the Institute of Pacific Relations, the Public Affairs Committee, the League of Nations Association,

the Pan American Union, government agencies, through the Government Printing Office, and others. Even outright propaganda, if analyzed and viewed in perspective, has its place. In fact the study of sources of information and of the way public opinion is influenced and formed is an important aspect of current-events teaching.

OTHER GENERAL READING

MY fifth and final suggestion is that we make use of current fiction and non-fiction. Here I can only suggest. You must find the materials best suited to your own needs. I should recommend the following books which some of your students might enjoy: Shirer, *Berlin Diary*; Churchill, *Blood, Sweat, and Tears*; Nehru, *Toward Freedom*; Hahn, *The Soong Sisters*; Van der Heide, *My Sister and I*; Strauss, *Bevin and Co.*

It behooves us as teachers to keep abreast of the times. We can not keep up with the book publishers, but we should be able to recommend, at any time, some good books which we have been enjoying. Of course the teacher should guide his pupils to books suited to their ability. This calls for some knowledge of the books on the part of the teacher. *Mein Kampf*, for example, should never be recommended to a sophomore lower than genius rank. Yet many seniors may enjoy analyzing its content and fallacies.

WE should emphasize big movements, encourage reading, and build backgrounds. Why not, for example, try to build class interest in Pacific relations? Why not tackle the problem of post-war reconstruction? Choose a topic, stick with it, and you will, in most cases, find that week after week news items will fit your topic.

The value of current-events study goes far beyond the importance of the happenings themselves. It should be an introduction to the sources of our information and to the critical study both of those sources and of how we form opinions. It also offers opportunity for supplementing established courses in areas and on topics which they neglect. And it should enable our students to see the countries and peoples of the world in their interrelationships, and to bring knowledge of historical background and current happenings to bear in an effort to understand the problems of our world today.

Notes and News

Wartime Delays

Subscribers whose copies do not reach them promptly should make due allowance for wartime delays due to the shortage of paper, difficulties in replacing skilled workers in printing establishments, and the necessity for giving priority to government orders. If, however, subscribers fail to receive an issue of *Social Education* they are urgently requested to notify W. F. Murra, Business Manager, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, so that adjustments can be made.

St. Louis Meeting Canceled

The meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies scheduled to be held in conjunction with the convention of the American Association of School Administrators at St. Louis on February 27 has been canceled because of transportation difficulties and policies.

The American Political Science Association had planned to meet in Chicago during the recent Christmas holidays, and at the same time the American Historical Association and National Council of Geography Teachers had planned to meet in Columbus. The National Council for the Social Studies had also planned to hold sessions in both cities. But all these meetings were canceled at the request of the Office of Defense Transportation. The ODT made it clear that it was the *time* of the meetings and not their *nature* which prompted the request.

State Organizations

New York. The sixth annual meeting of the New York State Council for the Social Studies was held in Syracuse on December 29 during the meeting of state secondary-school principals. Ruth Miller of Niagara Falls, president of the Council, presided at a session devoted to consideration of the role of the social studies in wartime. The basis of the discussion was the report of the Commission on Wartime Policy of the National Council, *The Social Studies Mobilize for Victory*, a copy of which had been sent to each member of the State Council before the meeting.

New Jersey. The New Jersey Association of Teachers of Social Studies omitted its usual fall program meeting this year, but held a business session at Trenton on November 7 for the purpose of electing officers for 1942-43. Justin H. Hess, Atlantic City, was chosen president; George B. Robinson, New Brunswick, vice-president; and Edwin M. Barton, Elizabeth, secretary-treasurer. Chairman of the northern district is John W. Ryder of Boonton; chairman of the central district is Clara Braymer of Trenton; and the chairman of the southern district is yet to be chosen.

Pennsylvania. A new organization was established last October when a group of social studies teachers met in Erie for a meeting addressed by Allen Y. King. The group enrolled twenty members at its first meeting, immediately applied for affiliation with the National Council, and adopted for its name, the Northwestern Pennsylvania Council for the Social Studies. The following officers, all from Erie, were chosen: president, Carl Radder, Academy High School; vice-president, J. E. Landers, Lawrence Park High School; secretary, Louise Schlindwein, East High School; and treasurer, Alice Foust, Strong Vincent High School.

Maryland. The History Teachers Association of Maryland met October 24 in Baltimore. Professor Ben Wood of Columbia University spoke on "Education for an Air Age." The present officers were re-elected: president, Harry Bard, Baltimore; vice-president, Olive Simpson, Cumberland; secretary, Wilson Valentine, Baltimore; treasurer, Gladys T. Hopkins, Towson.

Indiana. The Indiana Council for the Social Studies met in Indianapolis October 22, with Edgar B. Wesley as principal speaker. At a business session it was voted to omit the usual spring meeting and to elect 1943-44 officers six months in advance. The following persons were elected to take office next May: president, Ethel M. Ray, Terre Haute; vice-president, M. P. Allen, Bloomington; secretary, Hallie Smith, Terre Haute; treasurer, J. Curtis Weigel, Indianapolis.

Illinois. At the state high school conference on November 7, sponsored by the University of Illinois, the Illinois Council for the Social Studies held sessions and a business meeting. Lieutenant Commander Carlos Fallon, M.C., of the Co-

Iombian navy, spoke on "The Influence of Geography on the Development of the South American Republics."

At the business session, Leonora Cofer resigned as president, announcing that she had accepted an officer's commission in the WAVES. Vice-president Richard Hampleman of Belleville thereupon became president, and Mrs. Lucie Schacht of Chicago was chosen as the new vice-president. The annual spring conference of the Council will be held in Chicago in April. The December issue of the *ICSS Councilor* contains a report on programs and activities for local organizations of social studies teachers, based on suggestions and experiences of nine presidents of local councils who met at Decatur last April. The report was submitted on behalf of the group by Clifford Durman, president of the Peoria-Pekin Council for the Social Studies.

Wisconsin. At the annual fall meeting of the Wisconsin Education Association in Milwaukee, November 6, the History and Geography Sections held a joint session to hear Howard E. Wilson speak on "Civic Education for World Affairs" and V. C. Finch deliver an illustrated lecture on Australia. Co-chairmen of the session were Cecelia Howe of Janesville and Leavelva M. Bradbury of Oshkosh. At a business session the History Section approved a report recommending that it become "The Wisconsin Council for the Social Studies" at its spring meeting in Madison next May. E. J. Goodrich of Appleton was named chairman of a committee to prepare a constitution for the new Council. The group elected H. Margaret Josten of LaCrosse as president for 1942-43 and Ruth M. Johnson of Madison as secretary.

Missouri. Following a luncheon address by John Milton Potter, president of Hobart and William Smith Colleges, the Missouri Council for the Social Studies at its meeting in Kansas City on December 4 elected the following officers for 1943: president, W. J. Hamilton, State Teachers College, Cape Girardeau; vice-president, Caroline E. E. Hartwig, University High School, Columbia; and secretary-treasurer, Julian C. Aldrich, State Teachers College, Maryville.

The Board of Control decided to substitute seven district meetings, to be held in the five teachers college districts and at Kansas City and St. Louis, for the annual spring meeting. Joint sessions with teachers of English are a possibility.

North Dakota. Three speakers addressed the Social Studies Section of the North Dakota Edu-

cation Association at its annual meeting, October 22: Gilbert Albrecht, "Teaching World History in Wartime"; W. E. Lillo, "Interpretations of American History"; and Quinter Lyon, "A Political Program for Civics Teachers." Officers elected for 1942-43 were: Quinter Lyon, Minot, chairman; Minard McCrea, Carrington, vice-chairman; Lucille Pung, Valley City, secretary.

Local Meetings

An unusually large number of local meetings of social studies teachers are being held this winter to deal with war-born problems of civic education and related issues. The number of such meetings makes it impossible to report each one in detail. Discussion programs predominate. Many of them are based on *The Social Studies Mobilize for Victory*, the widely circulated report of the Commission on Wartime Policy of the National Council for the Social Studies. One series of such meetings was arranged especially to provide an opportunity for teachers in the western states to hear Howard E. Wilson, chairman of the Commission. Dr. Wilson travelled throughout the month of January, speaking in succession at Baton Rouge, Port Arthur, Houston, Dallas, Los Angeles, Long Beach, Sacramento, Salt Lake City, Denver, Lincoln, Burlington, Aurora, Chicago, Gary, Lansing, and Detroit.

Wilbur F. Murra, Executive Secretary of the National Council, who arranged Howard Wilson's January trip, announces that he is also making speaking engagements for other national officers in the eastern and northwestern states. The officers have agreed to speak on wartime issues without honorarium if their travel expenses are provided, but efficient scheduling of itineraries minimizes the cost to each local organization participating in the plan. Officers of local groups desiring such meetings should get in touch immediately with Mr. Murra at 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C.

The Far East

Four brief texts for high school use have recently been published by the Institute of Pacific Relations, 129 East 52nd Street, New York, and the Webster Publishing Company, St. Louis, at 40 cents each for single copies. They are: George E. Taylor, *Changing China* (94 pages); William Chamberlin, *Changing Japan* (93 pages); Marguerite Stewart, *Land of the Soviets* (94 pages); Elizabeth Clark, *Peoples of the China Seas* (94 pages).

Wartime Loan Packets

"A new catalog listing titles of currently available loan packets may be obtained by writing to the Information Exchange, U. S. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, Washington, D.C. This edition brings the list up-to-date as of December 1, 1942. General topics under which approximately 75 different loan packets are grouped are as follows: The Role of the Schools in Wartime, Understanding and Practicing Democracy, Cooperating to Improve School and Community, Conservation of Natural Resources, Wartime Health Problems and Programs, The Library in Wartime, Inter-American Friendship and Understanding, Women in Wartime, Children in Wartime, Nursing as a Career in War and Peace, Nutrition and the Nation's Welfare, The Consumer in Wartime, Victory Gardens, Post-War Planning, Aviation Education, The Far East, United Nations (in preparation), Canada (in preparation), and The Negro in Wartime (in preparation)." (*Education for Victory*, I:2, January 1, 1943)

Inexpensive Materials

Free and Inexpensive Learning Materials: 1942 Supplement, compiled by Lucile Denham, has been published by the Curriculum Laboratory, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, at 25 cents (Mimeographed, 50 pages). Criteria for inclusion were accuracy, timeliness, factual and usable organization, and lack of bias. Few items cost more than 25 cents. Among the wide range of topics covered are banking and money, buying and selling, civil liberties, colonial life, community study, conservation, cooperatives, democracy, foreign relations, government, housing, income, Indian life, labor, Latin America, population, social and economic problems, taxation, and the war.

State Manuals for Schools

New York: The State and Its Government, by W. S. Salisbury of the State College for Teachers, Oswego, and *New Jersey: The State and Its Government* by Leonard B. Irwin of the Haddon Heights High School, have recently been published by the Oxford Book Company. Intended to meet the needs of civics classes, the 124-page booklets deal with the organization and conduct of government, with public and social services,

and with the support of government. Each costs 48 cents.

Ithaca Ninth-Grade Course

Four units, recently revised, in the Ithaca, New York, Experimental Curriculum for Grades 7, 8, and 9, are now being tried out. Unit I, is "Our Vocational Interests and Goals"; Unit II, "How We Form Our Opinions"; Unit III, "Personal Economics"; and Unit IV, "We Learn About Our Government and Our Obligations as Citizens." Each unit is allotted about seven weeks. Objectives are stated, approaches suggested, and content outlined. Discussion and study questions, suggestions for activities, and bibliographies for teachers and pupils are supplied, together with lists of visual and auditory aids. The units were developed by a group of junior high school teachers under the leadership of Howard R. Anderson, director of social studies.

Junior Historians

The New York Historical Association has established *The Yorker*, a magazine published monthly through the school year for junior members of the Association. The articles are written by junior members, of junior and senior high school age. "Articles may be about social, political, economic, or cultural historical subjects and may be state-wide, county or local in scope."

Junior membership, including subscription to *The Yorker*, is 75 cents a year, or 50 cents for members of local junior chapters, which may be formed by five members of school age together with a faculty sponsor. For further information address Clifford L. Lord, Director, State Historical Association, Cooperstown.

Recent Articles

- Fersh, George L. "The Man in the Front of the Room," *Clearing House*, XVII:131-34, November, 1942. Models and dramatization in history teaching.
- Hochstein, Joshua. "Inter-Americanism Challenges Our Schools," *High Points*: XXIV: No. 10, 35-45, December, 1942. A broad treatment of needs and programs in intercultural education.
- Hutchinson, William T. "The American Historian in Wartime," *Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, XXIX: 163-86, September, 1942. A review of activities in the First World War.
- Tuttle, Edith M. "Student Government: Why Ours Worked," *Clearing House*, XVII:135-38, November, 1942. The essence is "a spirit of service and responsibility."

Pamphlets and Government Publications

Leonard B. Irwin

Agriculture

A pamphlet entitled *Agriculture: Uses of the 1940 Census Data in Schools* has just been issued by the Bureau of the Census in cooperation with the U. S. Office of Education. As stated in the foreword, its purpose "is to meet urgent requests for illustrative examples of the uses of agricultural Census data in schools, and for information regarding the availability of such material." It uses as an illustration the area served by a high school in Maine, and shows by the aid of data from the Census reports on agriculture how the pupils of that school may make a complete analysis of the farm situation in their community. A price list of the necessary Census reports for any rural area in the country is included. A copy may be obtained without charge from the Bureau of the Census, Department of Commerce, Washington.

Teachers interested in the problems of cooperative farming should find valuable material in *Research Guide on Cooperative Group Farming*, by Joseph W. Eaton and Saul M. Katz (H. W. Wilson Company, 950 University Avenue, New York. \$1.00). It includes, besides a history and bibliography of the subject, a discussion of the arguments both for and against this phase of the farm problem.

Rural Youth in Action, by David Cushman Coyle, published by the American Council on Education, Washington, deals with support of the War, health, vocations, recreational leader-

ship, discussion, practice of democracy, and related topics.

The National Planning Association (800 21st Street, N.W., Washington) has issued a pamphlet *For a Better Post-War Agriculture* (47 pages. 25 cents), which was referred to last month. This is Number 11 in the series of Planning Pamphlets, which deal with a wide variety of problems that will face us when the present conflict is over. While this particular number is probably too difficult for average student use, it should be helpful to the teacher who wants a brief summary of current thought about the future of the farmer and the land.

Soil conservation is treated in *Farms the Rains Can't Take*, a 14-page pamphlet available from the Superintendent of Documents at 5 cents a copy (Order number A1.38:394).

How Rural Youth May Serve (U. S. Office of Education. For sale by the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, Pamphlet 20 in "Education and National Defense" series. 15 cents) explains to young people in farm areas what they can do to further the war effort.

Local Planning and Public Works

The Bureau of Urban Research (Princeton University, Princeton, New Jersey) has issued two studies on city planning: (1) *Local Planning Activities in the United States*, and (2) *Urban Planning and Public Opinion* (25 cents each). The first is a survey of past and present trends in this field. The second is the report of a public-opinion poll made in a small industrial city. By a process of scientific sampling, an attempt was made to discover what the average citizen thinks could be done to improve his environment. The study was made in the hope that it would stimulate similar surveys in other places.

International Economic Development: Public Works and Other Problems, by Lewis L. Lorwin (Superintendent of Documents, Washington. 30 cents) is published by the National Resources

Dr. Leonard B. Irwin, head of the social studies department in the high school at Haddon Heights, New Jersey, succeeds Ralph Adams Brown as editor of this department. Mr. Brown has entered military service.

Dr. Irwin asks the continued cooperation of readers and publishers in calling attention to pamphlet material which might be of interest to social studies teachers.

Planning Board. It is a thorough and well-documented study of the value of public works on an international basis, especially in planning for post-war reconstruction. It is too technical for general use, but it should be useful to many teachers.

Bibliography of Government Publications

United States Government Publications and the War, by Carl H. Melinat (American Library Association, 520 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago. 25 cents) is an up-to-date selected and annotated list of pamphlets published by various federal agencies on the following groups of topics: armed services, civilian defense, industry, national defense, reconstruction, technical training, wartime living, and the present World War.

After the War

A stimulating folder, entitled *Post-War Agenda*, is offered by the National Resources Planning Board, Washington. Its chief feature is a list of coming problems and objectives presented in chart form and accompanied by questions which should provide an excellent basis for discussion groups either in school or out. Among the more than a hundred questions set forth are such as these: How long should price controls be retained after cessation of hostilities? What changes in transportation media will the war produce? How will wartime production areas readjust to peacetime employment?

The ALA Bulletin has published as Part II of its December 1, 1942 issue, a 9-page reading list, in essay form, on "The World Tomorrow." Copies of this timely guide may be obtained for 25 cents from the American Library Association, 520 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago.

Peace Aims and Postwar Planning: a Bibliography, Selected and Annotated, by Fawn M. Brodie, is available from the World Peace Foundation, 40 Mt. Vernon Street, Boston, at 25 cents. Books, pamphlets, and articles are listed.

The Problems of Youth

A discussion handbook for leaders of youth groups has been prepared by the American Council on Education, and single copies may be secured without charge by youth leaders from the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace (405 West 117th Street, New York). The booklet,

entitled *America's Leaders of Tomorrow Are Talking*, is the result of three recent youth leaders' conferences, and reflects the problems raised by young people themselves.

A more general publication on group discussion is *Group Discussion and Its Techniques: Bibliographical Review* (Superintendent of Documents, Washington, order number A36.146:4, 57 pages. 10 cents), which gives "the value of group discussion . . . techniques of group discussion, history of the group discussion movement, and where to obtain subject matter pamphlets."

Democracy by Discussion, by Emory S. Bogardus (American Council on Public Affairs, 2153 Florida Avenue, Washington. Pp. viii, 59. \$1.00) describes many types of discussion groups and points out their values in the democratic process.

Citizenship

The Immigration and Naturalization Service has issued a pamphlet, entitled *On the Way to Democracy*, for use as a text in teaching citizenship to aliens applying for naturalization. It will be of interest to all teachers of civics. It may be purchased from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, for 10 cents. In ordering give the title, the name of the issuing agency, and the classification number, J21.9:D39/2.

Miscellaneous Government Pamphlets

Highways of History (Superintendent of Documents, Washington, order number A22.2:H53/8, 75 pages. 25 cents). A "pictorial story of improvement of transportation in colonial America and the United States during the past four centuries. . . ."

Interior Department (Superintendent of Documents, Washington, order number I1.2:in8/2, 113 pages. 20 cents). "An account of the history and activities of the Department of Interior, the National Resources Committee and the Federal Administration of Public Works."

Oregon Trail (Superintendent of Documents, Washington, order number I16.3:930/27, 48 pages. 15 cents). "Notes on the Oregon Trail, arranged as new materials of instruction in geography, civics, and history for elementary schools."

Role of the Housebuilding Industry: Building America (Superintendent of Documents, Washington, order number Pr32.302:h81/3, 29 pages. 10 cents). Discusses the problem of establishing a real housebuilding industry after the war.

Sight and Sound in Social Studies

William H. Hartley

Motion Picture News

At the 1942 meeting of the National Board of Review several resolutions were passed which can well receive the support of social studies teachers. "The National Board of Review of Motion Pictures urges that the motion picture producers use the utmost of their abilities to create films that are not merely exhortations to patriotism but pictures that integrate the purposes and ideals of this war into our daily thinking and feeling." The Board also went on record as opposing double features as being wasteful of time, materials, and manpower.

Dr. David Goodman, Executive Director of Foley and Edmunds, Inc., Visual Teaching Aids, recently announced the findings of a controlled experiment on the value of the sound versus the silent motion picture. His findings rather clearly indicate that for the material selected the silent motion picture is the most effective aid to learning. Note, however, that the silent picture proved most effective for the presentation of a certain type of material. This brings us back to one of the fundamentals in visual instruction. If sound is essential to the concept to be taught, then it would seem logical that the sound film should be most effective, but if sound is not essential, then, logically, sound may be confusing and a silent presentation should be superior. We must await further evidence before we can discard this fundamental principle.

In its statement of wartime policy, entitled "The Social Studies Mobilize for Victory," the National Council for the Social Studies emphasizes the necessity for studying the world at war. We are indeed fortunate in the great amount of excellent motion-picture material which is constantly being made available. Much of this material is documentary in nature, showing the present struggle in all its grim reality and, equally important, tracing the steps leading to the present situation. These films take modern warfare out of the realm of fanciful imagination and show with vividness the vital need for equipment and skilled men to use it. Not only in the realm of actual warfare, however does the motion pic-

ture offer the social studies teacher valuable assistance, but also in the morale building area. The National Council statement (p. 7) stresses the need for learning about the peoples and cultures of Asia and Latin America. What a wealth of useful films there are in this area! Especially recommended are the films listed each month in this department under "Recent 16-mm. Releases." For more complete lists consult the H. W. Wilson Company *Educational Film Catalogue*, or the 1941 *Blue Book of Non-Theatrical Films*.

"Pictorial Films, Inc., RKO Building, Radio City, New York City [has issued a free] catalog of their film series, "The Story of Civilization." This series is composed of seventeen film programs of four reels each (about 35 minutes running time). The material deals with history and development of civilization, under the general topics, "Evolution of Economic Life," "Man Against Nature," and "The March of Civilization." Rental and purchase rates are given (*The News Letter*, VIII, 3:3, December, 1942).

Recent 16-mm. Releases

Bell and Howell, 1801 Larchmont Avenue, Chicago.

Caucasian Barrier. 1 reel, sound, rental \$1.50. Beginning at South Armenia, this film covers the area northward along the Georgian Military Highway into the land of the Khevsurs.

Brandon Films, Inc., 1600 Broadway, New York.

Sign for Victory. 2 reels, sound, rental \$3.00. How the "V" movement spread through France.

Yellow Caesar. 2 reels, sound, rental \$3.00. Summary of the career of Benito Mussolini.

Motion Pictures Division, Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, 444 Madison Avenue, New York.

Argentine Soil. 2 reels, sound, loan. Made in Argentine by Argentinians.

Brazil Gets the News. 1 reel, sound, loan. How a Brazilian newspaper gathers news.

The Day Is New. 1 reel, sound, loan. A day in the life of the Mexican people.

Guatemala Sketch Book. 4 reels, sound, color, loan. Really three films on life in Guatemala. May be used separately.

Mexico Builds a Democracy. 2 reels, sound, color, loan. How Mexico has brought education to its Tarascan people.

Sundays in the Valley of Mexico. 1 reel, sound, color, loan. Things to do and see on Sundays near Mexico City.

Official Films Inc., 425 Fourth Avenue, New York.

News Thrills, Vol. 3. 1 reel, sound, rental; apply. Shows commando raid on Dieppe, action in the Solomons, and fighting in Africa.

Radio Notes

A mimeographed bulletin announcing outstanding short-wave broadcasts from Britain may be obtained free from the British Broadcasting Corporation, International Building, 630 Fifth Avenue, New York. These programs may be heard in the United States between the hours of 5:15 p.m. and 12:45 a.m., EWT.

An interesting insight into modern warfare may be obtained by pupils who have a radio with a short-wave band. Of special interest are our own United States broadcasts of the news by short-wave to foreign lands. Have a pupil report on these broadcasts and some interesting ramifications on the use of the radio as an instrument in the war of ideas may be developed.

"Music of the New World" is a program broadcast over the Inter-American University of the Air every Thursday 11:30 p.m. to midnight, EWT. A handbook to accompany this series is obtainable from NBC Inter-American University of the Air, National Broadcasting Company, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York. Price 25 cents. This handbook provides valuable background material for these programs.

During the first six months of the war CBS broadcast a total of 3,013 war programs. Add to this 2,390 war announcements calling for aid to civilian and war needs and one gets a slight idea of the great part radio is playing in the war effort. CBS has averaged nine news broadcasts per day since the war opened. A typical week in radio finds the four major networks releasing 202 war newscasts, 173 war commentators, 54 war sermons, 130 war-slanted entertainments, 29 war-camp programs, 15 government shows. Too much war on the radio? Polls of opinion indicate that the people want more, better, realistic, and vital information. "Too much, too soon," rather than "too little, too late."

"Hello America" is another air show which is designed to cement Pan-American relations. But it isn't just another program. Each Sunday from 8:00 to 8:30 p.m. EWT, Orson Welles directs and acts in a program which he has written. The use of music and dialogue dramatizes the lives of men like Simon Bolívar of Venezuela, San Martín of Argentina, and Bernardo O'Higgins of Chile. "Hello America" can go on your "recommended" list.

Maps and Atlases

A *War Geography Atlas* inexpensive enough to be within the reach of every pupil is available from the American Education Press, Inc., Columbus, Ohio. This 46-page atlas sells at 15 cents per copy and contains maps and up-to-date information about climate, topography, peoples, and economic resources.

Maps, Charts, and Globes

The United States Hydrographic Office, Washington, has a large number of charts of value to teachers. An Outline Chart of the World, in three charts, size over all 48 x 90 inches; price \$1.80. A Time Zone Chart of the World, 30 x 50 inches, costs 50 cents. For further information send for circular No. 3, January, 1942.

Most map companies have developed and made available globes which rest in a cradle and which may be lifted out and turned about so that all areas may be closely studied and measured. The most recent of these globes to come to our attention is the "Polar View" globe of the Weber Costello Company, Chicago Heights, Illinois. This comes in 12- and 16-inch sizes; a flexible measure, known as the Great Circle Rule, which has special markings for tracing and measuring great circle routes, is furnished with the globe.

The general nature of the war in the Pacific with its great distances and scattered lands, requires new and clearer maps. One such has recently been published by the A. J. Nystrom Company. It is No. PO-21, "Pacific Ocean and Adjacent Countries." Copies of the new Nystrom map catalog are now available. Write the company at 3333 Elston Avenue, Chicago.

An introductory text in map reading and aerial navigation is *Map Reading and Navigation* by Richard M. Field and Harland T. Stetson. (New York: D. Van Nostrand Company, 1942. Pp. 129.) It assists the student to understand and read aerophotographs, contour maps, and typical physiographic features.

C. C. Wylie is the author of *Astronomy, Maps, and Weather*. (New York: Harper, 1942. Pp. 449.) This manual was prepared at the request of the Army Air Corps Flying Training Command. Principles of map construction and map reading are treated at length.

Following the war news on the map is a popular activity in America today. To aid students to follow the lines of battle, the C. S. Hammond Company, 90 Lexington Avenue, New York has issued the "Field Marshal's War Map." This

map is mounted on heavy duty map-pin board 43 x 28½ inches in size. With the map come 80 colored flag-pin markers of warring nations. As regions are captured and retaken, the flag-pins are moved accordingly. Price \$2.49 postpaid.

Scholastic magazine, 430 Kinnard Avenue, Dayton, Ohio, has issued a handbook of background facts on World War II, complete with seventeen large maps and twenty-five photos. Single copies are 25 cents; in classroom orders of ten or more, 10 cents each. *Scholastic* also has an "air map," 17½ x 24 inches, which will be sent free to schools which receive *Scholastic*.

A transverse polyconic projection map of "Asia and Adjacent Areas," which is said to reduce distortion to a minimum, is now available from the National Geographic Society, Washington. The map shows Asia, Europe, North Africa, and large segments of central and eastern Africa, the northern half of the Indian ocean, and a considerable area of the Pacific. Price 50 cents.

"Flying and Weather"

The Audio-Visual and Teaching Aids Service, New Jersey State Teachers College, Upper Montclair, has issued "a tentative list of periodicals, publications, charts and maps, films, slides and filmstrips, recordings and blueprints to teach pre-flight aeronautics, but also to correlate the study of aviation and weather with other studies in the schools war time curricula." The compiler is Lili Heimers. Price, 50 cents, paid in advance; stamps not accepted.

Posters

Milton Bradley Company, Springfield, Massachusetts, has designed a set of twelve war posters printed in hectograph ink, from each of which fifty or more clear copies can be made. This series of posters, known as "Save and Serve" set, covers such subjects as scrap collection, war stamps, rubber conservation, and the like. The set of twelve master copies costs 50 cents.

The Office of War Information, Washington, D.C., announces the availability of a revised edition of the posters showing the flags of the United Nations. Copies are free. Ask for it by the title, "United Nations Fight For Freedom."

The U. S. Department of Agriculture, Washington, has a series of war posters which are available to schools free of charge. Among the topics on which posters are available are "Make Your Rubber Last," "Scrap" (especially farm

scrap), "Food for Freedom," and "Strong in the Strength of the Lord" (morale).

The United States Department of Labor, Children's Bureau, Washington, has a number of posters on child health and child-labor legislation. Most are free; a few cost 5 to 15 cents.

Recently the writer wrote the Information Division, Office of War Information, Washington, concerning the availability of war posters for display in schools. The OWI promptly forwarded a selection of about 30 posters which make an excellent display informing students of the part they may play in the war effort.

Hispanic Culture

The Hispanic Foundation of the Library of Congress has set up a photographic archive of Hispanic culture. This collection of photographs will include pictorial examples of folk art, furniture, costumes, religious customs, and diversified crafts. It will emphasize the fine arts in Spain, Portugal, and Latin America. Materials from all periods, from the earliest times to the present day, will be included. The Hispanic photographic archives welcomes the visits and queries of mature scholars bent on serious investigation.

The Hispanic Foundation has also issued a bibliography, *The Fine and Folk Arts of the Other American Republics* (free on request), and is preparing a comprehensive annotated bibliography of publications as part of its "Guide to the Art of Latin America."

Helpful Articles

DePencier, Ida Brevad. "Opportunities for Children in a Democracy," *Instructor*, LII:41-50, January, 1943. An illustrated unit of work complete with a variety of activities.

Finnegan, Estelle. "The Game of Flags," *The Grade Teacher*, LX:38, January, 1943. A way to motivate history lessons by learning to recognize foreign flags.

Harrison, Richard Edes. "Making Maps Tell the Truth," *Travel*, LXXX:10-13, 30, December, 1942. An explanation of the important facts about cartography.

Sawyer, Charles H. "Museum Education after the War," *Education*, LXIII:222-225, December, 1942.

Hartley, W. H. "Illustrative Material for Conservation Education. II. Slides," *Journal of Geography*, XLI:332-335, December, 1942. Sources of slides.

Winslow, Leon L. "The Integrated Program," *School Arts*, XLII:146-147, January, 1943. How the arts may serve the subject matter fields.

Readers are invited to send items of interest for this department to Dr. Hartley at the editorial office, 204 Fayerweather Hall, Columbia University, New York.

Book Reviews

TEACHING CRITICAL THINKING IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES. Thirteenth Yearbook. Edited by Howard R. Anderson. Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1942. Pp. ix, 175. \$2.00.

In practically every social studies syllabus, "ability to think, discriminate, and judge" has always been a noble and inspiring phrase in the list of objectives. A study by R. E. Swindler entitled "Objectives in the Social Studies" indicates that critical thinking ranks sixth among the twenty-eight objectives most frequently mentioned in a representative sampling of social studies syllabi. Yet we, as teachers of the social studies, have done little to interpret this phrase—until recently a semantic fiction—into functional and meaningful practices in teaching and learning.

In this Yearbook are collected adequately for the first time: (1) definitions of abilities involved in critical thinking; (2) suggested methods and materials for effective instruction; (3) application to situations inside and outside of the classroom; and (4) a survey of more adequate techniques of evaluation for critical thinking. This synthesis has demanded the coordinated efforts of many persons.

The Yearbook is designed for use by classroom teachers, and it applies most specifically to teachers in the secondary schools because the materials and illustrations presented are to a large degree drawn from experiences of pupils and teachers of junior and senior high schools. This limitation of the Yearbook was probably made necessary by many expediencies faced by the committee which planned and produced the Yearbook. Also, more experiences are available in published form at the secondary-school level. On the other hand, it is unfortunate that the development of abilities and skills in critical thinking from childhood through adolescence are not, at least in cursory manner, explained and illustrated for teachers of the social studies.

In Part I, F. G. Marcham has done a splendid job in making a detailed analysis of the sub-skills thus far identified as involved in critical thinking. Furthermore, he has explained and illustrated each of them so that the intelligent teacher may clearly understand what he is dis-

cussing. He has pointed out that not all of these skills can be used simultaneously even by the most talented person. Fortunately, he has indicated that they are not used in any single logical order but that they are used in combinations or syntheses demanded by varying situations. It is to be hoped that the analysis, which necessarily involves breaking down hierarchies of critical thinking into more or less atomistic skills, will not misguide teachers in the atomistic teaching of such skills. This may be a real danger and would be most unfortunate.

In Part II, Elmer Ellis has described and illustrated methods and materials by means of which the various specific skills of critical thinking may be taught in the social studies classroom. He cites at length materials prepared for classroom use. So far as he has developed and presented these materials, Mr. Ellis has made an excellent contribution. These materials have not been as well articulated and interpreted as might be desirable. In a sense, the transition from one section to another is slightly disturbing because of the lack of discussion and articulation. Excellent as are the materials cited by Mr. Ellis, most of them have been drawn from the same source or sources, namely, the Cornell Study and the Eight-Year Study of the Progressive Education Association. If other sources had been cited also, the more universal application of these would be inferred by the classroom teacher.

Howard E. Wilson, in Part III, on developing skills through participation in community life, has given a wide variety of excellent illustrations drawn from many sources. While some of the illustrations may seem a little sketchy, they provide sufficient structure and content so that their application to a variety of situations can easily be made by the intelligent social studies teacher. There is a fortunate and desirable emphasis and implication throughout this chapter that one of the significant tests of the development of skills in critical thinking is their application in pupil participation in school and community life. This part of the Yearbook deserves careful reading by teachers of the social studies who too often confine their interpretation of social education to applications that can be carried on within the four walls of a classroom.

In Part IV, Hilda Taba has presented excellent suggestions related to the clarification of the objectives of critical thinking and to the use of evaluation data so as to improve the curriculum and to guide pupil growth. Miss Taba has cited at length paper-and-pencil test materials which have been devised largely in the Eight-Year Study of the P.E.A. for the evaluation of various aspects or skills of critical thinking. Although Miss Taba has frequently called attention to informal procedures and to forms of direct observation for appraising growth in critical thinking, these suggestions might have been interpreted more dramatically to the average classroom teacher if they had been illustrated and described more fully.

In a summary appraisal of this Yearbook, any fault-finding in minor details and any differences of opinion of a reviewer compared with the opinions of the authors should be regarded as relatively unimportant. The important fact is: Here is one of the most needed contributions of our times for the improvement of social studies teaching and the development of democratic citizens. The suggestions, analyses, and illustrations supplied by the authors are drawn from the work of teachers all over the country. These trends are the beginning only of what should be a continuous improvement of methods, materials, application and evaluation of critical thinking as applied to social education. Especially in these troubled times, powers of critical observation and appraisal should be made an integral part of the pupils' equipment for dealing with social, economic, and personal problems of war and peace. The Yearbook is an outstanding contribution of pioneer thinking not only for the social studies but for other subjects or areas of the curriculum. Its contributions will enrich social education significantly during the next decade.

J. WAYNE WRIGHTSTONE

Board of Education
New York City

TEACHING THE SOCIAL STUDIES. By Edgar Bruce Wesley. 2nd ed. Boston: Heath, 1942. Pp. xviii, 652. \$3.00.

In his chapter on textbooks Dr. Wesley points out the fact that publishers and authors are sometimes driven by necessity to make minor changes in books and publish them as revised editions. This revision is not one of that kind. New references have been added to the excellent annotated bibliography appearing at the end of each chapter. Two wholly new chapters "Demo-

cratic Teaching and Learning" and "Teaching Reading and Study Skills" have been added. Chapters dealing with the unit method, visual aids, and evaluation have been rewritten, enlarged, and expanded to make them more comprehensive. These changes and others surely make this a thorough and honest revision.

The material of *Teaching the Social Studies* is divided into seven parts and an appendix. The main divisions deal with the nature and present status of social study instruction; curriculum making in the social studies; the history of the social studies; teaching and learning; equipment and resources; specific methods of teaching; and evaluation and measurement. The appendix contains materials on the development of the social sciences which appeared in the main text of the original edition.

This volume is a comprehensive and scholarly treatment of the whole field of what and how to teach in the social studies. The reviewer has often felt that the title was inadequate since it does not indicate the great emphasis placed upon the social studies curriculum. Throughout this volume there is continuous evidence of sound and thorough scholarship in the social sciences and exhaustive and critical use of the literature of education. The bibliographies as well as the text material bear this out amply.

One of the excellent features of this book is its specificity. Whenever a writer is specific he tempts readers to disagree, and experience has shown this to be true in this case. On several occasions this reviewer and some of his students have had occasion to take exception to statements in both editions and the study which followed such disagreement has been very beneficial. A discourse which is general and rambling usually is acceptable without much question since the reader furnishes his own specific illustrations. This book certainly does not have this fault, and several students have criticized it as being too analytical in some instances.

Here is a volume which has demonstrated its superiority and which in its present form promises to be even more usable in the classroom than was the first edition, which proved to be valuable for undergraduates as well as for graduate students who were reexamining their ideas about what and how to teach and who were working on special problems. Anyone planning a course dealing with the social studies curriculum or with method of instruction should give this book thorough and careful consideration. In the range

of topics covered and in the specificity of treatment it has no serious rival. This reviewer would have been pleased to see some treatment of various kinds of map projections and some description of the recent efforts to improve the statement and the grading of essay examinations. No doubt other readers will miss other matters which to them are important, but certainly the most critical must admit that this volume contains more valuable material than any other book of its kind.

HENRY KRONENBERG

University of Arkansas

SOCIAL-STUDIES SKILLS. By Forrest E. Long and Helen Halter. New York: Inor, 1942. Pp. viii, 117. \$1.50. With INDIVIDUAL SELF-TESTING KEY, pp. 32, 5¢.

In this little volume a professor of education and a school principal have joined to produce an interesting addition to the gradually growing body of material on the training of skills. This is a textbook for direct use by pupils in supplementary skill-training units which might be introduced in almost any social studies course. It is designed primarily for junior high school pupils, but might have a wider use. The present reviewer has known plenty of senior high school students who would have profited by such a study aid. The content of the exercises seems generally well chosen, and the breezy introductory paragraphs of each unit, enlivened by sketches, supplied by two high school art students, should be intriguing to pupils. For each unit, three exercises are provided, called respectively practice material, test, and retest. Somewhat over half of the items are of types which can be scored uniformly and objectively by the key supplied in a separate pamphlet. As pupils do not mark the book, repeated use as well as quantity rates hold the cost down.

The twenty units cover a variety of skills—the conducting of meetings, committee work, and discussions; several phases of the preparing and presenting of reports; the use of the library, reference books, maps, and graphs. They are all very desirable skills, and it is to be hoped that the over-ambitious characterization as “the 20 basic social-studies skills” (which appears in a descriptive circular and not in the book itself) will not do harm by false expectations. There are considerably more than twenty skills needed in the social studies, and opinions would certainly differ as to selecting any particular number of them as the basic ones. Several books the size

of this one would be needed to include also exercises on additional phases of reading comprehension in social studies material; on skills in critical thinking (some, but by no means all of which, would perhaps be above the grade level for which this book is planned); on vocabulary building; on learning and using time, place, and cause relationships; on some additional library and reference-using techniques.

A comprehensive manual of skills would be forbidding to teachers and pupils, and certainly premature at this stage. We need further experimentation with skill-training units, and also with other ways of introducing skills systematically into the curriculum. In this the teachers of the social studies must cooperate with those in other fields. The selection in this book well illustrates how skills are not the exclusive property of the social studies, though they need to be taught in connection with social studies content as well as in other content subjects, English, and in some cases mathematics. A wide use of Professor Long and Miss Halter's book would advance the social studies' contribution in this direction, in addition to being immediately helpful to the pupils in whose hands the book is placed.

GEORGE W. HODGKINS

Public Schools
Washington, D.C.

SOCIAL STUDIES AND THE AMERICAN WAY OF LIFE.

By J. Wayne Wrightstone and Doak S. Campbell. Evanston, Illinois: Row Peterson, 1942. Pp. xi, 292. \$2.00.

The major purpose of this book, according to the authors, is:

... to interpret learning and teaching of the social studies so that pupil growth through social experience will emphasize the fundamental aims and ideals of the American way of life. . . . [They] believe that more vital experiences in the social-studies curriculum are needed. They believe that these may be achieved, in a large part, by newer attitudes and knowledge on the part of the social-studies teachers who are supplied with guides to learning and with modern materials of instruction. New materials, such as the unit texts and other unit studies, show a clear conception of the purposes of the social studies in relation to the American way of life (p. v).

This quotation suggests that the volume was written as a “guide to learning” which might help social studies teachers make effective use of the so-called unit texts also published by Row, Peterson and Company.

Social Studies and the American Way of Life is divided into nine chapters organized in three parts, as follows:

I. Purposes, principles of growth, and patterns of curriculum in social education: (1) Democratic ideals and practices in the school and in the community; (2) The nature of social learning; (3) Curriculum organization and method in the social studies.

II. Areas of social living and experience: (4) Cooperating in social and civic action; (5) Understanding economic processes in a democracy; (6) Adjusting to and improving the material environment; (7) Personal development and guidance; (8) Materials for use in teaching the social studies.

III. Evaluation of growth in social education: (9) Evaluation in the social studies.

These titles suggest the organization for a good methods course, and methods instructors can learn a lot about how to present such material effectively by studying carefully the previews provided for each part and the summaries included at the end of each chapter. The bibliographies for each chapter are short and in most cases carefully planned; the interpretive charts are models of their kind.

When so many and important topics are discussed in a brief volume, however, certain difficulties are bound to arise. Generalizations tend to be sweeping and recommendations are made without adequate suggestions for their implementation.

In the chapter on "The Nature of Social Learning" about three pages are devoted to listing and classifying work-study skills. Obviously such treatment is of little practical help to a teacher in his efforts to teach these skills. In a later chapter teachers are told that they can make slides cheaply. But they are not told how to proceed or where they can get the necessary information. In another paragraph of the same chapter specimens and models that might be used in teaching the social studies are listed. But there is no explanation of how or why these aids should be used. A quotation will suggest the superficial way in which activities are related to the larger areas of instruction in the field of social studies. Under the heading "Earning a Living," these suggestions are made:

Every community has its activities and organizations which serve admirably for study and demonstration. Visits to factories, picket lines, bread lines, and banks suggest interesting lessons which can be elaborated later in class discussion and by reading (p. 213).

The chapter on evaluation contains an excellent discussion of informal techniques and a comprehensive review of formal methods of eval-

uation. But it gives little helpful advice on how to make better test items. Nor is the reader referred to chapter III in *The Construction and Use of Achievement Examinations* by Hawkes, Lindquist, and Mann.

Of course it is equally possible to cite instances where the authors have made helpful and practical suggestions for improving classroom teaching. This reviewer has never read a more effective exposition of the grade-placement of materials than is found on pp. 156-171 under the heading, "Determining the Scope and Sequence of Experiences in Adjusting To and Improving Our Environment." In his judgment *Social Studies and the American Way of Life* contains much of "the newer attitudes and knowledge" which will help social studies teachers include "more vital experiences in the social studies curriculum."

HOWARD R. ANDERSON

Cornell University and Ithaca Public Schools

SECONDARY EDUCATION FOR AMERICAN DEMOCRACY: PRINCIPLES AND PRACTICES FOR AMERICAN SCHOOLS. By William L. Wrinkle and Robert S. Gilchrist. New York: Farrar and Rinehart, 1942. Pp. xiv, 554. \$2.75.

Secondary Education for American Democracy is a unique volume among the several available for use in the undergraduate course in principles of secondary education. Its authors have made an obvious effort to present the materials for this course in the light of the probable backgrounds, interests, and needs of secondary-school teachers-in-training. A relatively small amount of the usual statistical and historical material is included.

The book is organized according to problems which the writers feel are of importance to the prospective teacher. The six major problems considered are: (1) "What does it take to be a successful secondary teacher?" (2) "How does American secondary education happen to be what it is?" (3) "What is the secondary school supposed to do?" (4) "How is the secondary school to do what it is supposed to do?" (5) "How can the school tell how well it is doing what it is supposed to do?" (6) "What must I do if I am to be a successful teacher in service?" Although these titles appear somewhat different from the usual divisions of texts in this field, the authors do introduce some of the material usually included with regard to the history of American secondary education, secondary education in other coun-

tries, the high school population, the program of the high school, and the means of improving the program. Material relating to these topics is presented, however, as it seems to contribute to basic questions regarding secondary education rather than in keeping with any supposed logic of the subject matter of the principles course. Furthermore, much additional material is included. Such material as that on abilities needed by teachers (Part One) and on getting and keeping a job (Part Six) would seem of particular importance to the prospective teacher, and are not usually developed so well in books of this type.

In the reviewer's opinion, the outstanding contribution of *Secondary Education for American Democracy* is its clearcut analysis of many basic issues in education. For example, the section (p. 183 ff.), "What has the secondary school tried to do and what is it trying to do?" is an especially good exposition of the entrenchment of subjects in the high school curriculum. Another section, pp. 196-226, analyzes such issues as whether secondary education should be selective, whether there can be courses required for all, and whether certain subjects have disciplinary functions. The authors present a frankly progressive point of view on all such issues and appear consistent in their analyses. Recent studies are used extensively to support criticisms of traditional practices and beliefs. The student who makes use of *Secondary Education for American Democracy* has an excellent opportunity to become familiar with the literature of the field. However, persons already familiar with some publications and studies referred to may occasionally question the authors' evaluation. For example, not all would agree with this statement (p. 471): "Probably no single activity that the school may engage in is as productive of real stimulation to make improvement as is the use of the evaluative criteria of the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards." The authors do not attempt to present extended illustrations of innovating practices, but do make frequent reference to sources of information on practices.

Although the informal and personal style of the authors may have a definite appeal to the undergraduate student, the mature reader is annoyed by the frequent effort to keep the presentation on a conversational basis, and may tire of feeling he is being persuaded. Perhaps the simplicity of the style explains the occasional impression that an issue is oversimplified. The

divided page also was annoying to the reviewer, although this device, too, may be helpful to the immature student.

Secondary Education for American Democracy does not solve completely the difficulty of most general or introductory books. That is, it, too, attempts to cover more problems than can be effectively considered in the space possible. It is doubtful, for example, whether the few pages allotted to methods of teaching, guidance, and school-community relations more than establish and identify these matters as problems of the teacher, if even that. However, the book is much better unified than the typical work of this sort.

The book is replete with aids for the student. In addition to annotations of the literature throughout the text, several excellent bibliographies are given. Part One includes a most interesting test designed to determine one's educational philosophy. "Directed study" tests are given at the ends of each Part other than Parts One and Six, and should be of help to students using the book as a text.

This is a notable contribution to the general literature of secondary education, and merits careful consideration by those engaged in study and teaching in the field.

WILLIAM M. ALEXANDER

University of Tennessee

AMERICAN DEMOCRACY TODAY AND TOMORROW.

By Ryllis Alexander Goslin, Omar Pancoast Goslin, and Helen Frances Storen. New York: Harcourt Brace, 1942. Pp. xviii, 589. \$2.12.

Probably the outstanding contribution which this book makes to the social studies curriculum is its extremely interesting format. In no sense does this derogate the organization and presentation of the textual content of the book, which is excellent indeed. In fact, the authors have marshalled practically all the visual resources developed to date and have carefully integrated them with the main body of the book. At times this has meant the insertion of clever little drawings to highlight the problems under discussion; at others, the subordination of the printed body of the text to an explanation of large charts or diagrams.

Other features which make this book outstanding from the visual standpoint are the setting up of each page in two columns of print, and the frequent use of well-selected panels of pictures to show contrasts. In addition, the projects suggested at the end of each chapter are set up in the

form of an "activities bulletin" with lavish illustrations.

This happy use of learning devices is, however, not the only achievement of the book. The authors have based their discussion of American life on the well-known postulate that curricular materials should be geared to the environment of the student. Unit I helps the student analyze himself from the viewpoint of heredity and environment. He sees the problem of thinking for himself drawn against the great backdrop of factors which determine public opinion. A chapter on choosing a vocation is very interesting but seems to be slightly ill-timed at this point. It might have been introduced more logically in connection with the later units on economic life.

In Unit II the reader is taken out into the broader problems of home life, education, religion, race, and nationality. Throughout this and the following units, effective use is made of typical cases of American individuals and groups whose environment and reactions are made very real.

Units III, IV, and V explain our standard of living, economic institutions in both depression and boom times, and our economy in wartime (somewhat bobtailed because the book was published early in the first year of our participation in World War II). Excellent chapters are devoted to a portrayal of the role of the farmer, the laborer, the capitalist, and the consumer in a changing economy.

In Unit VI, the authors turn to our political organization. This section seems to sag somewhat, possibly because of the energy which has been expended on the previous aspects of American life. However, the two following units *Toward Understanding the Spheres of Government* and *Toward Understanding New Tasks of Government* place squarely before the student the need of bridging the gap between the traditional *laissez faire* philosophy and the actual daily requirements of people living in the machine age.

The last unit deals with America's role in the world and is obviously not intended to treat the subject very completely. In any problems course now being offered, this phase of the work must necessarily be flexible and left quite largely to the teacher's ingenuity in assembling materials. Yet the authors have sifted through a great mass of detail and have pointed out the significant milestones in America's emergence as the bulwark of democracy.

Such is the canvas on which the authors of this text have spent four years. The result is a great tribute to their ability and their perseverance. It should stand for a long while as the foremost book in the Problems of American Democracy field.

J. W. GANNAWAY, JR.

New Trier High School
Winnetka, Illinois

THE WORLD AFTER THE WAR. By Henry Bamford Parkes. New York: Crowell, 1942. Pp. vii, 240. \$2.50.

This book is concerned chiefly with the problem of maintaining peace in the post-war world. The author first presents an analysis of the peace settlement of 1919 in which its unjust features are considerably exaggerated, though much less so than is usually the case in discussions of this subject. But the provisions which he criticizes were not in his opinion responsible for Germany's determination to upset the settlement. Her attitude was determined primarily by the fact that she had lost the war. The injustices in the treaties were of chief importance because they largely account for the unwillingness of the powers primarily responsible for the settlement to maintain it in the only way in which it could have been maintained, that is, by force.

Consequently the coming peace should be free of such unfair provisions as might paralyze the will of the future victors to supply the force which will be essential for the maintenance of the arrangements established by the treaties. But quite as necessary will be the complete disarmament of the defeated states, which must be deprived of any effective power to upset the settlement.

The author then proceeds to discuss the nature of the future peace-keeping machinery. He demonstrates with great skill the totally impracticable character of the popular schemes for a federal union of the existing national states. He endeavors to show that a federation of Europe would also be impracticable, and if it were not, would be undesirable. He dismisses as "utopian" the system of collective security under the League of Nations.

The plan which he advances is, however, essentially based on the principle of collective security. World peace must be enforced by the common action of the four United Nations which have the requisite power to assume this task—the United States, the British Commonwealth, Rus-

sia, and China. And among the Four, the Anglo-Saxon powers would have to assume the major responsibility. They must be prepared to maintain peace in every part of the world except Russia and China. At the conclusion of the war, therefore, the United States and the British Commonwealth "should announce that henceforth they will jointly maintain a navy and an airforce each of which will always be not less than five times as strong as that of any other country in the world, the Soviet Union and China excepted; . . . and that they will immediately send their armed forces into action against any nation which commits an act of aggression."

The obvious objections that may be raised to this scheme are answered by Professor Parkes with admirable candor and with thorough knowledge of the history, traditions, and problems of the four great United Nations, and especially of the United States, whose attitude and action will be of primary importance in the whole matter. If the reader is not convinced by the arguments of the author, he will at least feel that this clear and interestingly written book provides a penetrating criticism of two exceedingly dangerous types of post-war planning: (1) that which provides for a peace of force without justice; and (2) that which provides for a peace of justice without force.

F. R. FLOURNOY

College of Emporia
Emporia, Kansas

THE PEOPLE OF THE U.S.A.: THEIR PLACE IN THE SCHOOL CURRICULUM. By Lucy Sprague Mitchell, Johanna Boetz, and others. New York: Progressive Education Association, 1942. Pp. 136. \$1.00.

This new booklet emphasizes the desirability of helping children to "know" people as well as to "know about" them. To this end the authors have compiled a list of many firsthand experiences that elementary-school children may readily have with the people of the United States.

Part I, "Knowing People Through Their Work," lists various trips which have been taken by children in city, suburban, or rural schools. Some of these experiences have been designed to acquaint children with work processes, while others are primarily useful in learning about workers. Other firsthand contacts, such as those obtained through school jobs and a study of documents, are suggested. A carefully compiled

bibliography for both teachers and pupils is also included.

Part II, "Knowing People Through Cultural Differences and Ties," provides teachers with a wealth of material on which they may draw to give their students more intimate contacts with the various cultural groups in the country. A bibliography on the general problem of immigration is followed by a list of specific readings pertaining to various cultural groups in the United States—European people, Negroes, Jews, Indians, and Orientals. The booklet concludes with reading lists on the music and dance of different cultural groups, as well as the regions of the United States in which they live.

KENNETH J. REHAGE

University High School
University of Chicago

THE FAMILY. By Ruth Shonle Cavan. New York: Crowell Co., 1942. Pp. 593. \$3.50.

It is only within recent years that the scientific approach has been applied to contemporary family problems. Special studies now come from many sources—a recognition that there are different phases to family relations. In this analysis the author makes excellent use of available objective investigations. She also unearths many shining nuggets from the White House Conference Studies, some heretofore unpublished. Since there are various experts who investigate different areas in family relations, it becomes an important task to synthesize and to integrate the recent findings of these independent studies. This the author accomplishes admirably, in a style that will appeal to undergraduates for whom this book is primarily written.

As young college men and women are seldom interested in the family as an abstraction, the author recognizes the need for practical considerations. While her viewpoint is "sociological, with emphasis on social control and regulation of the family," the core of the book relates to personal living—courtship, marriage, children, and molding of personality within the home. And when buttressed with interesting case studies, her discussion of the effects of the depression and of war on the modern family become very timely indeed. Enough historical material is included to give perspective to the central theme, and a judicious use of statistical data adds proof to help clinch important generalizations.

Among constructive aids noted, one sees the development of birth-control clinics, health



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agencies, day nurseries, family-welfare agencies, and federal aid for families. Moreover, the marriage-counseling center, with its corps of experts, should fulfill a great social need for information on marriage problems. Another trend reveals student interest in a new type of college course—training for marriage—in over one hundred of our colleges and universities. But what is being done to train the many young people who do not attend college, questions the author? We can reply with assurance—practically nothing. While progressive teachers of social problems on the secondary level will find many answers to their questions in Cavan's book, the big hurdle is to find progressive parents, who are open-minded enough to welcome enlightened instruction on family relations for their teen-age boys and girls.

JOSEPH C. BAUMGARTNER

Lincoln High School
Cleveland

THE SMALL COMMUNITY, FOUNDATION OF A DEMOCRATIC LIFE: WHAT IT IS AND HOW TO ACHIEVE IT. By Arthur E. Morgan. New York: Harper, 1942. Pp. xiii, 312. \$3.00.

The thesis of this book is not new. It is, in fact, an old, old story, told time and again during the past hundred years and worth, today, any number of retellings. Stated ever so briefly, the small community, as known in the past is disappearing, doomed perhaps to ultimate extinction in the Western world. Its passing constitutes a crisis of unsuspected importance in social living, for intimate primary associations have been the historic "seedbed" of our culture, the cradle of such human traits as mutual aid, sympathy, loyalty, and a concern for the common good.

Mr. Morgan tells this story with clarity and insight, conviction and imagination. Chapters deal in sequence with the nature of the small community, its place in human history, relations to society, disorganization, community study, the coordinating council, leadership, and the enrichment of local life in such areas as economics, health, social service, recreation, ethics, and religion. The omission of community improvement via the school, while not an oversight, is regrettable in view of the increasing activity in this field.

Unlike Frederick Le Play, another famous

engineer turned sociologist, the former head of the TVA and president of Antioch College is convinced that, by taking stock of our long-time drift toward disunity, the local community can be revitalized and made to transmit again "the intimate cultural traits which give primary direction to individual lives." In this respect the author's position is not unlike that of Charles Horton Cooley, although there is only casual reference to Cooley and no use at all of Le Play's invaluable studies.

That Mr. Morgan has the courage of his convictions is evidenced in his Community Service, Inc., a bureau established at Yellow Springs, Ohio, to give technical aid in community rehabilitation. Faced as we shall be, at some future date, with the problem of post-war re-employment, it would appear that now, if ever, is the time to formulate local plans for local growth and betterment, and then to incorporate these plans into programs of county-wide, state, and regional scope.

LLOYD ALLEN COOK

Ohio State University

CIVILIAN MORALE. By Goodwin Watson, Ed. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1942. Pp. xii, 463. \$3.50.

This is the second yearbook of the Society for the Psychological Study of Social Issues. One would hardly suspect that such a book would be the kind that one would turn to for light reading; but if he is really interested in discovering how people feel, and why, he will not consider the time wasted that he might spend in reading it. The reviewer was pleased to note that Professor Watson in the opening paragraph of his preface recognized the tendency in some quarters to justify under the guise of building "morale" almost anything that somebody may want to do. This book does not make that error.

The nineteen chapters are the work of twenty authors. They have made it a serious study. It does not claim to be final but does undertake to make known some of the discoveries that have been made in the course of scientific investigation. Professor Watson has written three of the chapters, and three more are each the joint production of two writers. Much the longest chapter is by Professor Watson himself on "Morale During Unemployment."

The first eighteen chapters are grouped in four parts, dealing respectively with "Theory of Morale," "How Morale Develops," "The State of American Morale," and "Morale in Industry."

The book closes with recommendations as to "Essentials for a Civilian Morale Program in American Democracy." A bibliography giving specific references for each of the nineteen chapters follows the main text, and a rather complete index closes the volume.

We may give special attention to two of the chapters in order to illustrate what the book is like. The opening chapter, by Professor Allport of Harvard, in discussing "The Nature of Democratic Morale," draws a distinction between morale under democratic and under totalitarian systems. Both groups, he says, rely upon slogans and both have some of the same obstacles with which to contend. In a democracy, however, the effort would be to strengthen the individual wills of the citizens, which must be coordinated if we are to produce an invincible American morale.

Professor Murphy of the College of the City of New York has written the closing chapter on "Essentials for a Civilian Morale Program." He bases his program on the characteristics seen in the Jeffersonian tradition. He sees the chief obstacle to be overcome as an apathy or lack of enthusiasm about the defense of democratic institutions and a skepticism which expresses itself in a "show me" attitude about many things. He believes that we must look beyond the temporary goal of winning the war to the long-range goal of winning the peace. After referring to the absence of a centralized or federal morale policy, he lists various agencies which consciously or unconsciously are undertaking to build morale.

One may not find himself in perfect agreement with all the conclusions drawn by the writers of the various chapters, but at least he will recognize the effort to base those conclusions on facts rather than prejudices.

R. O. HUGHES

Pittsburgh Public Schools

SOCIOLOGICAL FOUNDATIONS OF EDUCATION. By Joseph S. Roucek and Associates. New York: Crowell, 1942. Pp. x, 771. \$3.75.

This textbook represents an ambitious attempt to define and characterize that still nebulous academic area called Educational Sociology. The book's avowed purpose is to present "a survey of our sociological knowledge—with educational implications—as an introduction to the fundamentals of educational sociology," and also to "serve as a guide to tomorrow's much-needed specialized study and research." That laudable purpose, unfortunately, is not noticeably achieved in the

pages which follow, for the "fundamentals" remain concealed under excessive verbiage while the "guide" offers neither stimulating analysis nor suggestive synthesis. While specific chapters are exempt from this criticism, the book as a whole, written by thirty different persons scattered from New York to California, demonstrates all the vices and none of the virtues of multiple authorship.

Encyclopedic in scope, this *Foundations* treats all conventional topics in its field, together with several needed additions not hitherto included in educational sociology textbooks. Yet its multiplicity of verbal definitions, its frequent random and repetitious content, its occasional open contradictions between chapters, and its general lack of essential internal unity combine to render it a psychologically forbidding introduction to its highly significant field. Had it been reduced, through rigorous editorial integration, to perhaps half its present size, it might have been the basic textbook which teachers in this still-neglected academic area greatly need.

EDWARD G. OLSEN

Russell Sage College

FOCUS ON LEARNING: MOTION PICTURES IN THE SCHOOL. By Charles F. Hoban, Jr. Washington: American Council on Education, 1942. Pp. xiii, 172. \$2.00.

"George F. Zook, in his report to the American Council on Education in 1940, described the motion picture as 'the most revolutionary instrument introduced in education since the printing press'" (p. 16). The fact remains, however, that, although this medium has been used in the schools of America for over a quarter of a century, its use is still very much in the experimental stage. The surface has barely been scratched. To "define the functions of motion pictures in general education and to facilitate the development of general education through the use of motion pictures" (p. v), the General Education Board, some five years ago, granted a total of approximately \$150,000. *Focus on Learning* is the final report of the director of the Motion Picture Project of the American Council on Education.

In his first chapter, "The Movies Go to School," Dr. Hoban reviews the history of the introduction of the film into the classroom and points to the educational adaptations necessary for the efficient use of motion pictures in the educative process. In this connection there arises

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the interesting and important point of the place of propaganda films in the schools. Should we not utilize this powerful medium to develop loyalty to American ideals and to dramatize the values for which we are fighting? Yes, says the author, here is vital material which should not be overlooked, but, "It must be based on facts, not lies; on whole truth, not half-truths; on reason as well as emotion" (p. 14).

"The School Movie" is described in Chapter two. The present and past character of educational films is noted. The remainder of the book describes the reaction of teachers and pupils. Generalizations are based upon a critical examination of approximately 2,500 reels of school films. From the 5,600 teacher judgments and 12,000 student reactions, the author concluded that students not only like films, but that they like best those showing personalities of about their own age doing things that children of that age generally do. Younger children, to be sure, are also interested in older children shown in a film, but older children are seldom interested in younger children. Likewise boys and girls are most interested in films about people of their own sex. (We wonder, subjectively, how valid

this generalization is as applied to juniors and seniors in high school. As a matter of fact this generalization seems based upon data which is not statistically significant.) More pertinent is the observation that differences in economic and cultural status between the observer and the characters shown in the film tend to influence the reaction of the student. This is especially true in films which deal with minority races.

These generalizations concerning the items to which students react, the author calls bridge-heads of interests. They are interests upon which the teacher may build in utilizing film material. Even more pertinent than the foregoing, it seems to the reviewer, is the basic generalization that "students respond most readily and most favorably to familiar things in unfamiliar situations and to new things in familiar situations" (p. 59). This is a principle laid down by Henry Johnson in his *Teaching of History* many years ago. As a corollary to this principle one may agree that "In selecting films for use in the classroom, the content of the film should be considered with relation to the experience and background of the students" (p. 62). This does not by any means preclude the possibility of introducing new and strange material through films, but a "bridge-head" of interest should be established to insure maximum learning.

Focus on Learning is a provocative volume. Its suggestions concerning the place of the film in the curriculum (chapter 4) and the teacher's task in properly utilizing the film (chapter 5) provide principles for a re-examination of current practices. Most helpful is the final chapter on film evaluation. How can one tell whether a film is a good one for the purpose which it is to serve? The principal methods of evaluation are analyzed and evaluated. Most significantly it points out that the real proof of the worth of a film is determined only after actual classroom use. How then can one tell whether a film will prove useful in a specific situation without actually trying it? The answer lies in completely annotated lists of films and evaluations of teachers, pupils, and experts who have seen and used the films. The Motion Picture Project has furnished us with such a list for about 400 films in its *Selected Educational Motion Pictures*, one

of the eleven reports issued by the American Council on Education.

Dr. Hoban and his colleagues would be the first to enter a disclaimer to any assertion that *Focus on Learning* constitutes a complete manual for the selection and use of other educational film. The whole important area of how to make effective use of worth-while films is almost totally lacking in this volume. A blueprint to guide producers of school films is only faintly visible, but within the scope of study attempted the Project has well justified its time, effort, and expenditures.

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